

ne

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

Quarterly

Sixty-sixth Annual Meeting
March 20-24, 1961

VOLUME XXXIV

APRIL, 1960

NUMBER 4

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2024

**The
NORTH CENTRAL
ASSOCIATION
Quarterly**

April 1960

VOLUME XXXIV, NUMBER 4

Association Notes and Editorial Comment

“THERE OUGHT TO BE A LAW!”

DIPLOMA MILLS, a shameless, subterranean element in the American scene, should challenge action by every responsible citizen, to say nothing of those to whom the citizenry has delegated protection of the integrity of the schooling of its offspring.

The American Council on Education reports in its 100-page *American Degree Mills* that these self-styled “colleges or universities” are collecting an estimated \$75,000,000 annually and heavily damaging U.S. prestige abroad. Each year the estimated enrollment runs as high as 750,000, many of them in foreign countries. At least two hundred of these bogus organizations have been found in thirty-seven states.

We may reason that deceiving foreigners is one thing, regrettable as such deception is; but what position should we take about the hundreds of thousands of our citizens who enroll for these spurious “credentials”? Why do they do it? Are most of them so educationally naive that they do not know the consequences? Are some of them guilty of malicious intent? And finally, what role does each expect to play before an unsuspecting public?

We are in the quieter stages of spectacular turmoil over TV sell-outs, payola, piratical drug prices, and deceptive Madison Avenue antics sold to big business at astronomical figures. All this, so it seems, we recurrently have to live through.

These contemporary exposures are all to the good, of course. Since each citizen cannot be an army of one against predatory interests, he must experience massive abuse before his fellows protect him. But it is strange, isn't it, that in contrast to the TV explosion, the ACE report on the profits of deceit in the educational scene has hit the public like a wet sponge? Who but educators—and how many of them—has even heard about it?

It seems that no aspect of American life is immune to applied gangster psychology: whenever a fast buck can be got from suckers, muscle in! Diploma mills may not be operated by a syndicate, but they are operated by gangster minds. And they have been with us for a long time. Ethical educators have known all this. But these educators have relied on lists of properly accredited institutions for negative protection against spurious organizations wherever the latter might touch their own. But this is not enough. The startling figures released by ACE show the magnitude of this illicit business at last.

Concerted action must be taken in support of the remedial legislation ACE proposes. Not only state legislatures but the Congress of the United States must get the message. The North Central Association is in a strategic position, philosophically and practically, to carry this message for its nineteen-state area, and to urge its sister regional institutions to do so for their own. Why not move out?

A venerable friend has his favorite chair for reading and dozing in the University Club at Ann Arbor. But occasionally he finds it preempted. He philosophically accepts this frustration by muttering, "There ought to be a law!" as he stretches out elsewhere; and so say we in regard to the multi-million racket ACE describes.

American Degree Mills, by Robert H. Reid, is available from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., for one dollar.

HARLAN C. KOCH

VISITS TO DEPENDENTS' SCHOOLS

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION operates outside its nineteen-state area when it accredits a high school for the children of Service-identified families in off-mainland posts. As printed in *THE QUARTERLY* for July, 1959, there are fifty of these schools located in fifteen countries. Some of these countries are in Continental Europe, some in the Far East, some on islands in the Caribbean and the Pacific, and some in Newfoundland and Labrador. Biennially, the Armed Services send NCA visitors to these schools, quite as State Committees send visitors to schools on the mainland. Last fall two went to Japan, four to Europe, and two to Puerto Rico. They officially report to the Commission on Secondary Schools.

Each year, *THE QUARTERLY* prints informal accounts of these visits. Those for 1959, received before *THE QUARTERLY* went to press, follow.

SPAIN, AZORES, NEWFOUNDLAND,
LABRADOR, ICELAND

by Messrs. Jacob Van Ek
and Harold H. Metcalf

TO THE CASUAL OBSERVER the Balboa Hotel in Madrid, Spain, appears American in design and clientele. It is in fact operated by the United States Government for American military personnel who stop there on their way to and from assigned bases. One cannot go into the dining room for breakfast without finding American

families, including children, among the guests. The assignment of an American service man to a foreign base normally is for a two-year period which may be lengthened at the initiative of either the government or the enlistee. Families with children may be housed on a base or within commuting distance either in modern homes constructed by the United States or in homes or apartments leased by the government or a member of military personnel.

American youth of school age are found in most areas of the world. Approximately fifty thousand dependents (children of American officers and enlisted men) are attending some one hundred fifty schools maintained by the armed forces at government expense in the Far East, in Europe, in the Middle East, and in other parts of the world. About 80 percent are enrolled in elementary grades one through six and 20 percent in secondary grades seven through twelve.

We, as delegates of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the United States Armed Forces, visited secondary schools in Spain, the Azores, Newfoundland, Labrador, and Iceland. As might be expected, students and schools exhibited a wide range of characteristics but each secondary school administrator when asked the purpose of his school replied that it is college preparatory in emphasis. Enrollments varied from 90 to 750. The students exhibited a wide range of ability, interests, and background. Once inside the doors the schools exhibited an atmosphere so similar to that found in secondary schools in urban areas of the United States that one forgot he was thousands of miles from home. Four years of English, three years of social studies and history, three years of mathematics, a year of biology and, in alternate years, physics and chemistry, and two or three years of one or two foreign languages characterized most of the programs. All had libraries and qualified librarians, all had science laboratories, and all offered typewriting along with one or two other business courses.

Establishing schools at or near military bases in foreign lands poses all of the problems encountered within our country, and many others. Costs of construction of new schools are much higher, in some cases doubled, for structures similar to those at home. Normally Uncle Sam establishes a new school in temporary quarters, usually a building previously constructed and used for some phase of the military, such as a dormitory or abandoned officers' quarters. School administrators assigned to such bases work closely with military officers to develop plans for modern school plants which are eventually built through funds that become available in military budgets. Supplies and apparatus for instruction are quite slow in delivery. Orders are filled in six to twelve months. The amount and quality of the supplies secured are excellent. In schools having a high percentage of faculty turnover, requisitions placed by a teacher in one academic year often are not filled until the next year thus creating unforeseen hardships and, in a few instances, building an inventory of unused material. Such did not seem the case with textbooks, however. Teachers find texts available in late editions and in titles acceptable for a modern approach to classroom presentation.

Although, as pointed out above, the dependents' schools visited had a common core of studies, but not all provided instruction in homemaking, industrial art, physical education, and music. Interscholastic athletics were very limited because of distances between schools and related problems of transportation and time. Factors influencing comprehensiveness of dependents' schools are restricted available funds, the attitude of school administrators and armed forces personnel, and limited space and facilities. On some bases shortage of and slowness in filling orders for supplies were obstructive factors. The school at Zaragoza in northern Spain is successfully engaged in an experimental arts, crafts, and wood shop. Adequate supplies, space, and tools have been provided and the teacher excels in motivating and supervising a variety of small group proj-

ects in a single class period. Acceptance by students was quite high as measured by number enrolled in classes and effervescent enthusiasm.

We approached our visits anticipating that American dependents' schools in foreign countries might be ideal situations in which to develop inter-cultural relationships and understandings. However, we found little evidence of organized contact between native school populations and our own, particularly in areas in which the native language differed from our own. Dependents' schools in Spain are teaching Spanish in elementary and high schools, using native Spaniards as instructors. Of the schools studied, Pepperrell Air Base School located on the outskirts of St. Johns, Newfoundland, had established more contact with the native population than other schools in other areas. It engages in athletic competition and other extra-curriculum activities with St. Johns public and private high schools.

With the exception of Spaniards teaching the language, all faculty members on dependents' schools staffs are United States citizens, have at least a bachelor's degree plus two years or more of experience in United States schools, and are qualified to teach under rules and regulations of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. For the most part, staff members are capable and enthusiastic instructors interested in both their work and adventure in visiting foreign countries. Although turnover of staffs in schools we visited remains high, many teachers transfer to other dependents' schools. Teachers new to the program are carefully selected on the basis of academic preparation, recommendations, and personal interviews. Small classes and low pupil-teacher ratio contribute to close association between teachers and students. Rather intensive study by the visiting team of the school marks and student capacity as measured by intelligence tests in one of the schools visited indicated overachievement in most areas of learning.

Morale of students seemed to be quite high and school atmosphere, measured by

American standards, seemed wholesome, informal, and conducive to learning. These schools offer to American dependent children one of the few opportunities to see their friends and to cooperate in common endeavors.

The administrators supplied evidence to show that parents take active interest in the schools and in serving on committees for school support and improvement. Both administrators and teachers reported that parents support school projects and enthusiastically respond to requests for conferences and for help of various sorts. Military base commanders, military educational officers, and supply personnel all give more than lip service in support of dependents' schools. The base commanders want the schools to meet standards of similar schools in the United States. They accept suggestions for improvement and they follow through in getting things done.

We returned from approximately eighteen thousand miles of flying in military air transport service planes and visiting in five foreign lands believing that American dependents' schools are doing remarkably well, particularly in view of obstacles which must be overcome. Based on our limited observations, we believe that military and educational personnel assigned to bases visited are excellent representatives of our country.

PUERTO RICO

*by Messrs. Lawrence W. Hanson
and Laurence Walker*

ON OCTOBER 31, 1959, we left for Puerto Rico to evaluate the three dependents' high schools there. We started our tour of inspection on Monday, November 2, and completed our assignment on November 10.

Although Puerto Rico is not considered a foreign post for our Armed Services, the high schools for the children of military personnel are considered dependents' schools and are accredited by the North Central Association. Two of the schools, the Antilles High School and the Ramey

Air Base School, have been accredited for several years. The Roosevelt Roads High School is applying for membership in the Association.

Before making our visit to each school, we agreed upon a plan of procedure for our evaluation. This plan was followed on our visits to each of the three schools: 1. To visit with the superintendent and principal to discuss the basic philosophy of the school, to learn the plan of operation, and to find out the particular problems which are typical of each school. 2. To visit classrooms, to observe the work of the teachers and to check on equipment. 3. To visit with students, both in groups and individually, to get their opinions concerning the school. 4. To visit with the teachers as a group and individually to discuss their problems. 5. To inspect the physical plant. 6. To visit with the military personnel in charge of the educational program.

We found the three schools to be very well administered with the superintendent in direct charge of the educational program and of the planning of the broad policy of the school. The high school principal is in charge of each school and is responsible for the implementation of the educational program. There is close cooperation between the military and the administration of the schools. The parents of the children are greatly interested in the educational program and show that interest by taking a very active part in parent-teacher meetings which are always well attended and well planned. Financial support for the school is very good. Construction of a new elementary school at Roosevelt Roads will release all existing facilities, currently used by the elementary grades, for the high school. A new high school building has been approved for construction at the Antilles High School. The base commander at each installation was visited and briefed regarding the purpose of our visit. We also gave him a short report of our observations. Each expressed great interest in what we had to say.

The teaching staff at each school is generally well qualified for their respective teaching assignments. In a few instances,

there are slight deviations in preparation in minor teaching areas. The nature of the school, however, is such that it is difficult to secure teachers qualified in every respect. The quality of teaching is high and teacher morale is very good. They are unusually interested in their students and enthusiastic in their presentation of subject matter. The relationship between the students and the teachers and the teachers and the administration is of high order.

Students expressed themselves as being very well satisfied with the program offered to them. Since the schools are relatively small, the students like the fact that they know all of the other students and that the relationship between students and teachers is of high order. The former feel that they have a well-rounded program of activities. Many of the social activities are supplied by the parents. Since these schools are somewhat isolated and they are in a semi-foreign country, there is a very close relationship between the students and great interest in one another's activities. A few of the students stated that the lack of a complete interscholastic athletic program made for a lack of enthusiastic school spirit. There are well organized student councils in each of the three high schools and the students expressed a high degree of satisfaction with activities of this character. Many stated that their adjustment to the school was very easy since the student body is relatively small; and that since most of them have had the experience of moving from one school to another, all cooperate to make new students feel at home as soon as they enroll. Many stated that they felt they are getting an excellent education and that they have to work harder at their lessons than at schools previously attended.

The equipment in general is adequate. More science apparatus is being regularly supplied and as the schools expand, plans are underway to add more home economics and shop equipment. The libraries are well stocked with good books and are well administered.

There are certain problems typical of a

dependents' school that are evident: 1. The student turnover is great due to the shifting of military personnel from one base to another. As a result, students are enrolling at all times during the school year and often are at one of the schools for only a few months. 2. There is a rapid turnover in the teaching staff. Most teachers stay for only one or two years. The task of orientating new teachers to the job places a heavy responsibility on the superintendent and principal. We found, however, that the administration has worked out excellent handbooks of rules and regulations for the new teachers. 3. The problem of securing supplies, books, and teaching materials is a slow process, since the orders must be processed through several channels and transportation adds to the length of time needed to get the materials. We were impressed by the way in which these problems are being met by the teaching staff and by the administrators. They are aware of these problems and have good workable procedures for improvement.

Every courtesy was shown to us by the administrators. They arranged for us to see many interesting places during our off-duty hours. It was a strenuous ten-day trip, but it will be long remembered by both members of the visiting team.

VISITS TO OTHER ASSOCIATIONS

THOSE WHO ARE ACQUAINTED with Association protocol know that there is an exchange of visitors among them when the respective annual meetings are in progress. This is the best way yet devised to exchange information about the structure and procedures characteristic of each association, and note how common problems are handled. But perhaps more valuable still is the chance to observe and report at home base such adventures with research, new projects, and the like which may be under way. THE QUARTERLY has received the following reports of such visits to the associations indicated.

THE NORTHWEST ASSOCIATION

NORTHWEST-ORIENT FLIGHT 70 pulled off the runway and headed eastward. The

day was December 2, 1959. But for the trip home, my mission as fraternal delegate to the annual meeting of the Northwest Association at Spokane was complete. I had been greeted and hospitably directed by Messrs. John E. Riley, president of Northwest Nazarene College at Nampa, Idaho, and G. Don Fossati, principal of the Senior High School at Pendleton, Oregon. Both of these men had represented their Association at the NCA meeting in Chicago, the former in 1958 and the latter in 1959. Executive Secretary Fred L. Stetson, of the University of Oregon, who has occupied that position for a decade, was characteristically busy with his assigned tasks as the meeting moved from one programmed event to another, but took time to see that I was adequately taken care of. Everywhere I turned, thoughtful consideration and friendly conversation occurred.

The Northwest Association does not forget old friends. "How is Rosenlof?" one would say, "I remember him as a former delegate"; and another, "Some years ago, Charles Boardman was here. I did my graduate work under his direction at Minnesota. Dead? I'm inexpressibly saddened. He was a fine man." And so it went for Edgar Johnston and Marvin Knudson, who also had made visits comparable to mine.

At the general meeting of the Commission on Secondary Schools, I had been asked to speak especially about the research activities of the NCA. For the first time, that Commission is moving actively toward at least two subsidized research projects, hence its particular interest in the NCA's experiences with programs of that character. Within the limits imposed, I touched on the undertakings of all three of our Commissions, but singled out the Commission on Research and Service because of the *Experimental Units*, *Your Life Plans* and the *Armed Forces, Foreign Relations*, and *Superior and Talented Students*. I indicated that, all told, since 1932-33, the Association has spent an aggregate of more than a half-million dollars for major research.

Another topic of interest to our Northwest friends was the work of the Committee on Public Relations. I had been advised about this interest before leaving for Spokane, so took a set of our NCA film strips—the story of the NCA—which was given its premiere showing at the Annual Meeting in Chicago last spring. I presented this set to the Commission with the compliments of the NCA, but was pleased to discover in the process that one had been forwarded by Treasurer Snider following action to that effect by our Executive Committee last April. I also described the handbook on public relations, which is being readied for release at an unspecified date.

President Charles Odegaard, of the University of Washington, addressed the annual dinner assembly. His topic was "Our Common Task." "Prosaic enough," thought I. "I wonder what his theme will be." After I had expressed the greetings of the NCA, I soon found out. This distinguished scholar, a former director of the American Council of Learned Societies and dean of the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts at the University of Michigan, proceeded to identify the manifold responsibilities of public education as a continuum, certainly through high school and college.

If I, as reporter, may now turn editor for a moment, I shall say that President Odegaard enunciated a constructive and reasonable philosophy to which all sober-minded educators of all persuasions might thoughtfully attend. We need more voices like his in these mischievous times. As president of a major university, he is strategically situated to exercise impressive leadership toward resolving the extreme educational controversies with which the air is filled. May the audience of educators who heard him at Spokane be multiplied manifold.

In structure, the Northwest Association differs somewhat from the NCA. For instance, there is no division comparable to our Commission on Research and Service. But the concerns of both are quite identical. In that regard, I might

well have been attending one of our annual gatherings, except for reports from Alaska and Hawaii, as I listened to problems presented and actions taken. This is good. It makes for more effective inter-association communication.

HARLAN C. KOCH,
Editor of THE QUARTERLY

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION

INTERESTING SPEAKERS and meetings, familiar concerns and problems, the reviewing of old and the making of new friendships, and true southern hospitality combined to make most enjoyable and worthwhile my participation in the annual meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Our southern counterpart shares many, if not most, of our purposes and problems. Although somewhat more highly centralized in operation, it functions similarly in many regards.

The program of the annual meeting of this association is much like ours, but there are some differences. Reviewing committees are not used by the Commission on Secondary Schools. Many other educational groups assembled at the same time have their meetings listed in the official program. The interplay between commissions of the Southern Association and between the Association and other groups seems to be more spontaneous and informal than is the case with the North Central Association. Perhaps size is a factor in this.

The Southern Association has moved toward the accreditation of junior high and elementary schools. This development appears to be making progress slowly on a broken front and not without problems. Such is to be expected, and no one is blamed for this. Communication, within the Association and with school people and laymen, challenges this organization as it does ours. The active involvement of greater numbers of school administrators appears also as another shared concern.

One is impressed with the sincerity of those in positions of responsibility in the

Southern Association. The same is true of those persons in attendance. It is apparent that this organization is striving to be helpful and is succeeding in providing service and leadership that is sought after, respected, and appreciated.

STEPHEN A. ROMINE,
*Vice President of the North
Central Association*

THE WESTERN COLLEGE ASSOCIATION

UNTIL RECENT YEARS the Western College Association was a membership organization of institutions of higher education in the Southwest. Recently it assumed the general accrediting function and thus became the sixth of the regional accrediting associations. Since all states in the continental United States except California were already covered by one of the existing five regional accrediting agencies, the Western College Association, as an accrediting agency finds itself almost entirely limited to California. This places the Association in much closer relationship to both the legislative and the administrative branches of the state government than is true in the other regional associations, all of which include several states in their territories.

In at least one other respect the Western College Association differs from the other regional associations, and that is that it is an accrediting association for colleges and universities only. The junior colleges in California, because of their importance in the educational scene in terms of numbers of students served and resources available, have set up their own accrediting arrangements. The junior college group does, however, refer its actions on accrediting to the Western College Association for its consideration and through this medium junior colleges approved by the junior college group come to be accredited by the Western College Association. The control of the Western College Association remains in the hands of the senior colleges and universities since the junior colleges are associate but not voting members.

At the recent meeting of the Western

College Association there was much discussion of the desirability of extending the scope of the accrediting activities of the Association to include the high schools. It seems clear that this will be done sometime in the not too distant future though the formula for accomplishing it has not yet been worked out.

Despite the points of difference between the Western College Association and the North Central Association a visitor from our own Association cannot but feel completely at home among his colleagues in California. We share many concerns and interests. For example, the Western College Association people are strongly aware of the fact that the accrediting agency operating in the modern world is not fully discharging its responsibility if it does no more than separate the acceptable from the unacceptable institutions. It must, rather, be an agency employing a variety of means to the end of improving educational processes through assisting institutions to strengthen their programs. Thus, at the recent meetings of the Western College Association much attention was given to ways in which the Association might not only assist institutions working toward accreditation but

also utilize its resources to stimulate institutions already above the margin of accreditability to reach still higher levels of excellence. There was considerable interest expressed at the meeting in the North Central Association's developing plans for providing consultant service to both unaccredited and accredited institutions.

NORMAN BURNS,
*Executive Secretary of the
Commission on Colleges
and Universities*

CARNEGIE CORPORATION ANNOUNCES A
NEW GRANT FOR ITS PROJECT

ON DECEMBER 7, 1959, the Carnegie Corporation of New York announced a grant of \$150,000 for the continued support of the Superior and Talented Student Project. In publishing this fact in the NCA-STS Newsletter, "News Notes and Nuggets," for January, 1960, those in charge of the Project said, "This encourages us to make even a greater effort in our search for effective ways of providing for our talented and superior students." In 1958, the initial grant of \$174,000 was made for two years. Carnegie's investment is now \$324,000.

Development of Talent in Europe and the United States*

I AM WELL AWARE that the use of the word "talent" is a bit old-fashioned and not in accord with modern scientific usage. The words "aptitude" and "ability" I recognize are much more current in psychological circles.

I am further aware that those who have studied this whole problem can easily show that any concept such as I am going to use this evening is a vast oversimplification; that no talent or aptitude is simple, but is composed of a number of different factors. But let me go directly to the subject which I have chosen to discuss.

First, I shall remind you of the structure of education in Europe and in the United States. I am speaking of the free nations of Europe, of course; I am going to leave the Soviet Union and its satellites out of account. I will tell you frankly that I think we have heard too much about Russian education.

I am going to talk primarily about Germany, which I know best—Free Germany—and Switzerland; but what I have to say I think would not be very different if one brought into account France and Italy and perhaps the Scandinavian countries, too.

In Continental free nations the educational system is so set up that many families and many children make a tremendously important choice at age approximately eleven. Something like 20 percent of an age group are selected and enrolled

in what I will call pre-university schools. They are selected, of course, from only those who apply—an important point which I shall refer to later.

Those who do not apply, or who are not selected for these pre-university schools, go to work at fourteen. The rest of their education for two years is in what we would call a continuation school. There is an intermediate school in certain of the German states and certain Swiss cantons, but this is roughly the situation.

This is quite different from our system of education, which in most states goes to sixteen, seventeen, or eighteen years of age. The university structure is vastly different, too.

One day, when I was in Bonn as High Commissioner, I had the privilege of entertaining a distinguished American. He said, "Could you tell me what is the best liberal arts college in Germany?"

I said, "I am sorry, but there is no such thing anywhere on the continent of Europe."

I don't think he believed me, but I was telling the truth. A liberal arts college is nonexistent on the continent of Europe. The universities are essentially a collection of professional schools—law, medicine, science, theology, and engineering, though in Germany the engineering and some of the sciences are in a separate type. These institutions enroll something like 7 percent of youths of college age; whereas, a larger proportion of our young people go to private schools than would be true in Germany or Switzerland. Perhaps 10 percent or so go to our private schools, for the most part church-connected institutions. I think you would all agree that we could cite a great diversity in our tax-supported schools—a tremendous diver-

* Mr. Conant needs no identification. Probably he is best known, however, as former president of Harvard University and U. S. High Commissioner to West Germany. This address was delivered at a meeting of the Commission on Secondary Schools in Chicago, April 23, 1959. The speaker used no manuscript; hence the printed account is an emended report of stenotype notes.—EDITOR.

sity as compared to Europe. It was easy for me to sum up the European situation in a few sentences. It would take all night to go through, in corresponding detail, what is going on here in the United States.

This diversity has impressed me greatly; and among the many things that I think the average citizen is unaware of, and is therefore apt to be mistaken about in his judgment of American tax-supported education, is the fact that he does not know of the diversity to which I have just alluded. This diversity might be of several types.

In the first place, is the diversity we don't like. It is the diversity we speak of when we mention a good school or a poor school, a school totally inadequately financed or one that is almost, perhaps, adequately financed. The kind of diversity we would hope gradually to reduce—to eliminate, if you will—through more financial support and better administrative decisions, and better recruiting of teachers, too.

The second kind of diversity—experimentation—is a virtue of our system, with its local control and its thousands and thousands of school boards throughout the United States. Surely we will all agree that through diversified experimentation we have made great progress in the last fifty years in solving some of the problems that have confronted the administrators and the teachers in our tax-supported schools.

A third sort of diversity—and this I find the layman so little aware of—is that which comes from the dissimilarity of communities which the schools are serving, particularly the high schools, in which I have been most concerned. The difference between a high-income residential area, for example, outside of a large city is a case in point. I can think of one in the East where 90 percent of the families insist on their boys and girls entering college. Sometimes, at least, they are very specific in their ambitions in regard to a particular college—more specific than the ability of the boy or girl will

sometimes warrant. This situation presents problems to the administrator.

The contrast between that community and one in low-income sections of a large city is tremendous. I am sure you all know so well that what would be a good high school in one community would be a poor high school in another. This fact, I think, is very often overlooked by the critics of American public education.

But quite apart from this difference, you then have another based on a number of factors. From my point of view, I would like to discuss, first of all, the difference in size.

I am impressed by the fact that there are some 17,000 high schools with graduating classes of less than 100, which enroll something like one-third of the students of high school age. My point of view, from what I have seen and heard, is that such schools have great difficulty providing for the development of the students' talents except at exorbitant expense.

Then, too, 4,000 high schools take care of two-thirds of the students who are in tax-supported secondary schools. They in turn might perhaps be arranged in two categories: first, what I like to call the "widely comprehensive high school," which is offering a great variety of elective programs, including those supported by Smith-Hughes money, which provide vocational courses particularly for boys; and second, the limited comprehensive high school—limited because the community is not interested in having any of its children take vocational work even in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Therefore, this would be the high-income suburban type; with the families all having strong collegiate ambitions. Thus, such a high school is different from the widely comprehensive institution because it is serving a different kind of community.

A school may be limited in its comprehensiveness also by state laws or by the city situation. I am thinking of the vocational, separate tax-supported schools which one finds in large cities, for the most part, scattered throughout the United

States; such as in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin. In those three states, because of the way in which the Smith-Hughes money is administered, one can say that there are both vocational tax-supported high schools and limited comprehensive high schools.

Then, in a few cities in the East, the selective academic high school exists of which the Bronx High School of Science is perhaps the most talked about in recent years; but the Boston Latin School is surely the oldest.

Another way of looking at the problem is to see how the students divide between these schools. The following are rough estimates.

That one-third are found in the small high schools seems clear. Of the two-thirds in the other schools (I am talking about tax-supported schools), it would appear that something like one-half, about one-third of the total, are in what I call the widely comprehensive high schools, and the other in schools which are limited in their comprehensiveness either by state laws or by being in large cities or suburban communities which are not interested in vocational work.

Something like 10 percent of the population seems to live in those communities, including New York City, where a selective academic high school is available for those who want it. I think we can neglect that purpose, however, and speak in general, as I shall, of the development of talents in the comprehensive high school, limited or otherwise, as contrasted to the development of the academic talents in the European situation.

I have already spoken about the diversity of our colleges and our universities and their wide coverage as compared to the universities of Europe—community colleges, state universities, private and public, many of different sorts offering a great variety of programs.

So much for the general framework of the two systems.

What are the talents that I have in mind? I am going to name six. You may

have a very different list but, for the purposes of the evening, bear with me as I briefly run through how it seems to me they are handled on the two sides of the Atlantic Ocean.

First of all, if you will, is a talent for dealing with people—leadership—give it many names. It is a group of talents, I suppose, but of first importance in a democracy; second, athletic talent; third, musical talent; fourth, artistic talent; fifth, what I shall call manipulative talent; and sixth, academic talent.

Frankly, in Europe at the taxpayers' expense and in the formal school system, practically nothing is done to develop the first four: the talent for getting on with people, athletic talent, musical talent, and artistic talent. Only the last two, the manipulative and the academic, would be considered by most Europeans as falling within the scope of their educational system.

On the contrary, in the United States we have seen a tremendous movement toward developing all four talents to which I have just referred. The talent for dealing with people is so general and so difficult to define that I would speak of it in the general terms of what we accomplish or attempt to accomplish by courses in the social studies, by our organization of the school, by extracurricular activities in part, and by school government and organization.

If you will allow me to let this situation merge with education for citizenship, I think I can make a positive statement that any foreign observer who tries really to find out what is going on in our tax-supported schools will come to the conclusion that we do a far better job in this respect, including education for citizenship, than any other nation in the world.

The Germans, I found, were not very enthusiastic about some features of our system, but both in Germany and in Switzerland I was asked time and again, "What do you do about education for citizenship? We know it is good. We would like to imitate it if we could."

I suppose the diversity in regard to the development of athletic talent is less than in almost any other. I have this feeling about athletic talent, however: It is the one about which you can talk to a layman realistically and with understanding.

This, I submit, is not without value. Sometimes when I try to get across certain points I use the analogy of athletic talent, for almost without exception the layman, including the parent, recognizes that athletic skill, the final result, involves both identifying somebody with natural talent and securing a good coach to develop it; sometimes, however, there is the feeling that a teacher ought to be able to develop academic skills quite irrespective of the natural endowment of the child.

I now turn to the musical and artistic talent. I don't have to tell you what has been done in this country and in this century to develop this gift.

But here I am sure you will agree that one could find the greatest diversity. I could name school systems in which not much more is being done than in the European schools; but I could name others in which a great deal is being done at taxpayers' expense for avocational ends and almost on a professional level, too, though in some cases private funds are also involved.

The European would say, "Oh, that has nothing to do with the state. That is entirely private, and requires special time and special money. If they want to develop their musical and artistic talents, let them."

I think in no respect is the European situation more different than in its disregard for the development of the musical and artistic capabilities of its students in contrast with the United States.

Now I come to manipulative talent, which when developed leads to skills of a competent craftsman or technician and, in certain cases, although they must be developed in a different way, to those of a surgeon, a painter, or a chemist. It is a funny thing that we make these distinctions about manipulative talent and place

them in different parts of our educational system.

We hear some people say that scientists have no manipulative talents. I used to be a professor of chemistry, and I remember well a doctoral student who was working with me. Everything went wrong. Every piece of apparatus broke. Finally he said, "I don't know what is the matter. I don't have any luck. The bottom has dropped out of this beaker again." I replied, "I would advise you to drop chemistry. Nobody wants to hire an unlucky chemist."

But I am talking about the kind of manipulative talent that is not associated directly with the sciences or the medical or the artistic professions; that is, the potential that is developed in the skills of the competent workman and the technician.

In Europe this would be recognized as part of the educational system. Indeed, both in Switzerland and in Germany they would say that a great deal of their industrial success is based upon an educational system for developing the manipulative talents, but quite apart from the academic.

In Europe when a boy graduates and leaves the common school at age fourteen, he goes to work. If he is interested in becoming a skilled workman, his first job will be as an apprentice in one of the schools of the great industrial plants. If you go to the Ruhr, for example, and visit any of their big industries, they will show you with great pride their school, and you will see boys of fourteen starting to spend most of their time developing manual skills.

In addition, the state provides continuation instruction in related subjects and, to some extent (but at a modicum), in the development of an understanding of the history and the significance of the country.

And then, in both Germany and Switzerland, after an apprentice has completed the foregoing training and has had a few years' experience as a skilled work-

man, he may take certain examinations which involve some knowledge of mathematics. This mathematics, however, is nothing like that required for university admission. Having passed these examinations, the workman is enrolled at age eighteen or twenty in a technicum, or engineering school, for a year or two at government expense. The technicum requires much less mathematics and science than engineering. Through this method they develop and train the people who will be the foremen within the plants.

We see here a whole system. But it does not approximate the vocational basis for the industrial arts in our widely conceived comprehensive high schools, or in tax-supported vocational schools.

Finally, we come to academic talent. The development of academic talent in Europe is what people are thinking about when they praise the European schools. There are roughly three types of these schools. I shall refer to them as pre-university schools for easy identification.

In Germany and in Switzerland (German-speaking and French-speaking Switzerland, too) first is the *Gymnasium* in which instruction for eight or nine years is based on Latin, Greek (and the possibility of a third language, which would be, of course, a modern language), mathematics, science, and some history. Of course, the development of a knowledge of the literature and composition of the domestic tongue would be included also.

The second type would drop Greek and substitute a modern foreign language.

The third type would drop both Latin and Greek and offer two or possibly three modern foreign languages, with a little more emphasis on science and mathematics than in the other two types.

A very heated argument is going on in both Germany and Switzerland—and I believe in France, to some extent—as to which of these three types is preferable. Actually, in terms of the numbers I have seen, the more popular is the type with Latin but no Greek; the third type, however, which could be called scientific and

modern language, is growing in both popularity and importance.

Those who cling to the classical tradition represented by Greek and Latin feel this is a radical step backwards; and you can start a very good argument in many European circles about the relative advantages of the three types of pre-university schools.

Whichever type it is, selection is rigorous; not more than 20 percent of an age group can enter. The course is stiff, and there is a lot of competition, many examinations, much homework, and from one-half to two-thirds drop out. One sometimes gets the impression that all with academic talents are automatically drawn into these schools, whereas those without such ability are excluded.

This is far from being the case. In Europe, far more than in the United States, family tradition plays an enormous rôle. Therefore, there will be great numbers of families in every German state and in every Swiss canton that would never think of trying to have a son or daughter enroll in one of these pre-university schools, however bright they might be.

I talked to the minister-president of one of the large German states, a Social Democratic state ever since the start of the Federal Republic. He said sadly, "You know, we have done all we could in this state to make education cheap, to make it available to everybody, but I must confess we have had no luck in getting our universities really to enroll any large number of the sons of the peasants or of the workers."

The reason was quite clear. Those families just never would think of trying to get their children enrolled in these pre-university schools, although they were free and run at state expense.

How is the selection made? Knowing some of the problems of American education in regard to deciding who will enter what types of institution and who will not and who will elect what subject, I took a particular interest in both of these problems when I was in Germany, and also

when I visited Switzerland two years ago. In Germany, selection varies from town to town and from state to state; and in Switzerland, almost from canton to canton, too. Sometimes it is based upon teacher evaluation, sometimes upon written examinations, but never as far as I am aware, upon psychological tests. Aptitude tests have hardly reached the Continent as yet.

I was talking to a very capable administrator in one of the Swiss cantons about this problem. Since boys and girls go to separate schools, as they do in Germany, and since there are the three types I have spoken of, six schools are involved with selection. They all pick out their students at about age eleven. After he had explained their process, I said, "Don't you have any problem with the parents? Aren't there some parents in this canton who are anxious to have their boys and girls enroll in these schools, and yet you don't feel they have the ability to profit from it?"

"Oh yes," he said, "we do. We have really quite a lot of trouble there."

"Couldn't they make trouble for you politically in the canton election?"

"Yes, you are quite right, they could. The problem is getting worse each year."

"What do you do about it?"

"Well, I'll tell you. We get the parents of that group together in the spring, before we make the selection, and we tell them about these schools, and we point out to them that they are very, very difficult indeed, that it is a great deal of hard work, that half to two-thirds will fail, and the students who fail might have great psychological difficulties because they have to transfer back into the common school; or, if beyond fourteen, they can't go to school at all except privately. And then we say to them, 'After all, this school just prepares for the university, and it is very difficult. Unless you are awfully sure your boy or girl is able to do it, why try it? It's just a road to a university.' We tell them that, after all, the university prepares for the professions, and there is no money really in that."

"Well," I said, "does it work?"

"Oh yes," he said, "it works very well. We are very successful in keeping the pressure down."

"Don't you miss some good students in that way? Aren't there some families that ought to be persuaded to have their children apply?"

He looked at me in amazement and said, "But you don't want all the bright boys and girls to go to a university, do you? Don't you want them in other kinds of work, too?"

I felt like saying, "In the United States we would say, 'Yes, we do want them all in the university, and maybe that is one difference between Europe and the United States.'"

I might have added, "I have met some people in Switzerland, too, who are deeply worried as to whether all their potential talent, particularly in science and engineering, was developing as it should," but I let it go.

Perhaps, if I had been accurate, I would have said to him, "We in the United States are interested in and concerned about having all the potential university students receive a university education." In this regard I think there has been a change in mood; and to this change I attribute some of the misunderstanding between the citizens, on the one hand, and those who are operating and teaching in our public schools, on the other. To this change I also ascribe some of the unfair and intemperate criticisms of our publicly-supported schools.

If I remember rightly, back in the 1930's the great public concern—and the people who expressed it were leaders of public education—was with education for citizenship, for establishing a continuing basis for a free society, for understanding the American way of life. With Nazism rampant in Germany and Fascism in Italy and Communism winning converts in Free France, people were concerned with the education of all youth as future American citizens.

Then came World War I with its overriding priorities. Another concern burst

forth in which scientists, engineers, mathematical people with aptitudes, were important for winning in the shortest possible time. And now, a mood, increasing since the end of World War II, recognizes the grim struggle we are in with the Soviet Union, and that we live in a deeply divided world marked by atomic weapons and intercontinental missiles. As a consequence people are anxious to an unprecedented degree about whether or not all the potential academic talent is being found and developed. But I don't have to tell *you*. Your own project on discovering and guiding superior and talented students illustrates your own concern with this new mood.

In summary, let me make a few points about developing academic talents in our schools.

First of all, talents should be developed before leaving high school—all of them that I have referred to. If they are not, it is too late in terms of the national interest.

Second, it is quite out of the question to do what a few laymen would suggest, namely, to develop the academic talents through a required curriculum. One of the unfortunate by-products of sputnik is the contention that everybody should be required to study mathematics or foreign language for four years. I don't have to tell this audience that this is utter nonsense. Furthermore, these talents cannot be developed by a required curriculum even for the able, academically talented students. Again I don't have to tell you how impossible that would be.

But I do believe—and here some of you may disagree with me—that because of the national interest, which is quite different from what it was in the 1930's, nationwide those who have academic talents should be urged to develop them to the full while they are in school, and then go on to college.

As for mathematics and languages, I believe that those who have the potentialities for both should study them in high school; otherwise, many doors will later be closed—and I am not referring to

college or university admission, which is quite a separate matter. I submit that there is a great deal of evidence that in every school there is a certain fraction who can do both, and many others who have the talent to do one or the other.

I have visited widely comprehensive high schools where a good share of the academically talented students in four years elected eighteen or twenty courses with homework; and a good deal of homework certainly is required by the program I am recommending.

In addition to studying four years of one foreign language and four years of mathematics I think they should study three years of science, four years of English (which ought to be required of all), and three or four years of social studies, too.

So much for my own personal prejudice on this subject.

If I were to try to sum up the great difference between European and American tax-supported education, I would say the difference is that the Europeans are committed to developing only two talents, and those quite extensively—the manipulative talent by one road (and very largely who will follow that road is determined by family tradition, something approaching a caste system, if you will), and the academic talent by another; that is, through the pre-university school.

In the United States we have developed a system of schools which in many communities, but not all, are concerned with developing a great range of capabilities, each according to his own talents.

These two big differences, it seems to me, go fundamentally to the present controversy over the structure of American public education and what should be done about it. I believe that it is possible to develop in one school the variety of talents characteristic of any student body and to do justice to them all.

I know there are many people who disagree with me. They would say, "Unless you isolate, as they do in Europe, those with the potential academic talents, and concentrate on them, you cannot do

justice to them." I disagree. I could name schools which give evidence to the contrary.

I believe that no radical change is required in the basic pattern of American tax-supported education, both elementary and secondary, to make it satisfactory even in this divided world with all the threats and problems that we have with the Soviet Union.

Sometimes I have met well-intentioned, interested parents or laymen who would say, "Seriously, now, don't you think we ought to import the European system?" These people, of course, have heard only of the European pre-university school. Sometimes they have thought that, of course, their own children would be automatically enrolled in these schools, but never about the selective feature or the fact that one-half to two-thirds of the enrollees fail.

Sometimes, just for the fun of it, I would say, "Let's see what it would take to Europeanize American tax-supported education—indeed, American education altogether.

"In the first place, you would have to eliminate all the four-year liberal arts colleges—over 1,000 of them. That would be quite a job. Secondly, you would have to change profoundly the undergraduate curricula in many universities. All the practical work and all the things corresponding to liberal education would be eliminated, and you would turn you universities into professional schools.

"The third thing you would have to do would be to have uniform standards of admission; whereas, there is only one in a European country. Then you would have to change the laws affecting the employment of youth." This I underline to lay audiences.

"You would have not only to change the laws affecting the employment of youth, but also the attitude of management and labor unions, and revert to the situation in 1900 when a boy or girl could

get a job, and many did, at age thirteen or fourteen.

"Then, of course, you would have to eliminate all the school boards—abolish all of them—and put the control of the schools in somebody's hands at the state capital who would determine not only the details of the curriculum but who would recruit and hire the teachers and assign them to specific schools in specific towns, without anybody in town having anything to say about it.

"You would also have to provide part-time education—continuation schools—for most of the potential citizens over fourteen years of age.

"But, more important than that, you would have to reverse the whole thinking of the American people. You would have to give up this idea of the importance of local responsibility and local pride in the schools. You also would have to change your attitude toward two concepts which, formulated as ideals, have guided so many generations. I refer to equality of opportunity and equality of status of all forms of honest labor."

Now, frankly, anybody who wants to undertake seriously to bring about any one of those changes is welcome to the job! In my opinion he wouldn't get to first base, nor should he; for I am convinced that we can make every one of those 4,000 high schools as satisfactory as the best in the United States. We can do it provided that the citizens in each community understand the problem, support the schools, and that you and your colleagues in turn will strive with the members of the community to work out the problems school by school. This will take cooperative effort, both among you and with the universities as well.

I now conclude by congratulating this Association on the initiation and carrying forward of your particular project for discovering and guiding superior and talented students. I wish you success in this undertaking.

CARL G. F. FRANZEN, *Indiana University,
Bloomington, Indiana**

Educational Systems of Major Foreign Countries and Their Cultural Functions and Outcomes

AN ASSIGNMENT of this nature presupposes a vast fund of information by the one chosen to present the facts. If the topic were one involving only a body of past material the task would be a comparatively simple one. But, when the subject concerns the fluid present, a certain amount of uncertainty enters regarding the situation as it actually exists because the economic and social life of the countries under consideration is in flux.

I have chosen for my presentation the major countries of England, France, Germany, and the Soviet Union. It would be relatively easy for me to describe their school systems five, ten years ago. But that's not my job. It's not a case of what has been, it's one of what is and what will be. And that's where the difficulty enters. Why? Because each one of these countries is modifying its school system.

Time is too short for the detailed description that each school system merits. All I can do is to present stereotypes that may serve to identify each one so that you may make some sort of suitable comparison between the four countries and our own. That there are differences no one can deny. But that these differences indicate a superior quality on our part and an inferior one on theirs does not necessarily follow.

The title of this talk seems to emphasize the relationship of a given school system to the culture it represents and the

success it meets in achieving this relationship. Webster defines culture as "the trait complex manifested by a tribe or a separate unit of mankind." What builds this culture? It's a way or ways of doing things. The way we dress or don't dress, the way we adorn ourselves, the types of shelters which house us, the way we obtain food, the way we transport ourselves, the kind of actions we countenance and forbid, the means of communication we invent and practice, the marital and family mores we develop, our attitudes toward our children, the way we deal with friendly or unfriendly neighbors, the instruments we fashion for peace or war, the type of training we give our youngsters—all these and more go into the development of the culture of any one group.

And don't forget the part played by tradition! Whenever anything, no matter what it is, once is accepted by a group and incorporated into its mores, there is a tendency to consider it so good that it becomes imperceptibly merged into the culture of the group. Often it stays there long after its relevance to any existing activity has vanished. A pat illustration is that of learning to catch fish by hand in the *Saber Tooth Curriculum*. And what about the position of Greek in today's secondary school?

It is impossible, it seems to me, to understand, even faintly, the relationship of the school system to the culture of a people without realizing, at the same time, the part that tradition has played. Tradition is a hand-me-down from one

* Mr. Franzen is emeritus professor of education at Indiana University. This address was delivered at a meeting of the Commission on Research and Service April 21, 1959, at Chicago.

generation to the next, but isolation is largely responsible for the development of *differing* traditions between groups—isolation by geographical obstacles such as widely separated islands, hard-to-traverse mountains and ravines, impenetrable jungles, or distance itself. Isolation is also caused by different modes of speech. All of these conditions serve to separate peoples from each other in large or small groups.

Man develops his society by the accretion of one happenstance after another. Trial and error play a large part in whatever he does. By accident he finds that striking a stone against flint produces a spark. This becomes his method of getting fire, so he teaches it to his children, and they to their children until we get the Ronson lighter. He finds that captives taken in war make good slaves if cowed, so he develops a caste system and teaches his children how to lord it over their slaves. In due course this process becomes a traditional one and eventually the culture of the group embraces it.

My task is to try to show probable causal relationships between a given society and its school system. If "culture" is the accumulation of the complexes mentioned above tied to a tradition that makes change difficult, it seems to me that the inference is inevitable that any fairly homogeneous group will develop an educational system in accord with the basic social philosophy of that group. Beardsley Ruml says, "It takes only a period of about a dozen years to implant a basic culture in the mind of man—the period between the age of two and the age of fourteen. In a psycho-biological sense, history, tradition and custom are only about twelve years old."¹ If this be true, then the type of education foisted upon the youth of a group is all-important in the life of such youth.

No matter what society we try to analyze, we find certain aims which guide its efforts to bring up the oncoming gen-

eration in the way it should go. By and large, these aims may appear to be similar, but the *methods of attaining* them distinguish one group from another. What are these aims? To grow up to be like father or mother, to learn to hunt, to fish, to raise crops, to allay hunger, to provide protection against the elements, to marry and beget children, to learn the mores of the tribe, its taboos, its history, its rules and regulations.

As I previously said, brevity compels me to resort to a stereotype approach to the four countries I am discussing. If one were to select just one norm to characterize the aims of education in each country, it might be: character for England, intellect for France, specialization for Germany, and subservience for the Soviet Union.

At this point I wish to cite the sources I have been able to consult in the preparation of this manuscript.

For England: Education in Great Britain, An Outline of the Educational System. British Information Services, May, 1958.

For France: Education in France, Comite France Actuelle, Paris, France, 1956.

For Germany: Germany Revisited, Education in the Federal Republic, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1957. Bulletin No. 12.

For the Soviet Union: Albert Boiter, The Krushchev School Reform, Comparative Education Review Vol. 2, No. 3, February, 1959, pp. 8-14.

Twenty-First Congress Adopts Seven-Year Plan, U.S.S.R., February, 1959, pp. 1-7.

England

The British are a composite of Angles, Saxons, and Normans, who, over the centuries, merged into a unique nation of freeholders. Their insular location forced them into an adventurous, sea-faring life, either in repelling the invader or in becoming invaders in themselves. The various invasions to which they were subjected produced a master and a lower class, with the privileges of advanced education going to the children of the former class. The tradition of British education in the 19th and part of the 20th centuries is attributed to the saying by Wellington, "The battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton." Stephen Leacock has

¹ "World Trade and Peace." Address at the National Foreign Trade Convention, November 14, 1945.

expressed it more picturesquely in "Lord Nosh rose, walked to the sideboard, drained a dipper full of gin and bitters and became again a high-bred English gentleman."¹

Another characterization follows:

For the English parent or for the English public at large "the best type of Englishman" to which everybody strove to conform was the "gentleman," the man of character, decent, fair-minded, but without any pretensions to any singular and outstanding capacity in any particular direction. It is not entirely due to P. G. Wodehouse that Bertie Wooster would be recognized as an English type.²

If any one phrase were to describe the *traditional* outstanding characteristic of British education it would be "character building," the development of a man who could with equanimity and imperturbability face any situation. He himself might come from the aristocracy or from the ordinary people. If from the latter, he would be a gifted individual whose advanced education had been provided by the scholarship system that subsidized brains in Great Britain.

For many decades, education in England was a matter of private concern. It was not until 1870 that elementary education became a function of local government, and 1902 that secondary education entered the picture. Subsequent Education Acts gave more and more attention to public support of education until the passage of the famous Education Act of 1944, which was passed by the Conservative government just before the end of World War II, and which is the basis for the present educational system in England and Wales. It is this system that we shall examine.

In England, education is centrally administered by the Ministry of Education, although local education authorities are responsible for seeing that a full range of educational opportunity, primary, secondary, and further is provided. Free full-time schooling is furnished every child from five to fifteen. The infant

school is from five to seven, the junior school from seven to ten and a half or eleven. There are three types of secondary schools, grammar, modern, and technical, admission to any of which is determined by tests, recommendations of junior school teachers and masters, and the wishes of the parents. Grammar schools are mainly college preparatory and academic. Modern schools provide a good all-round secondary education, growing out of the interests of the children, whereas technical schools bear a relationship to the industry or commerce of the neighborhood, but are not intended to give a narrow vocational training. Most grammar school pupils remain at school beyond the compulsory school age.

The British Information Services describe the schools as follows:

The distinctions between these three types of education have been stated very precisely, but in practice the differences are less marked than the descriptions might seem to imply. In general, particularly in the early stages, there is a difference only of emphasis and method of teaching.

The three types are not necessarily housed in separate buildings, and the Ministry, wishing to maintain flexibility of organization, has left the choice between single schools in individual buildings and buildings housing all three types or combinations of them at the discretion of the Authorities.³

The local education authorities are required to provide some form of technical, commercial, or art education, full-time or part-time, for those over compulsory school age and for all below eighteen, if they are not attending a full-time secondary school.

In 1956, in England and Wales, there were 3,636 modern schools, 1,193 grammar schools, 298 technical schools, 135 comprehensive schools, 504 full-time further-education schools, 687 part-time day, and 9,786 evening schools. There are seventeen degree-granting universities in England and Wales, four in Scotland, and one in Northern Ireland. In 1957, the total enrollment was 94,600. These students come from the grammar schools.

In appraising the education system of

¹ *Nonsense Novels*, John Love Company, London, 1914, p. 76.

² *London Times Educational Supplement*, March 21, 1942.

³ *Education in Great Britain*, British Information Services, May, 1958, p. 12.

England and Wales, we find evidence of the growing discontent with the pre-World War II separation of the goats from the sheep, leading to the abandonment of the exclusive aspects of secondary education. The Whig, or Liberal, Party has been supplanted by the Labor Party. The proletariat has emerged from the status of a lower class and has asserted its rights to a sharing of the appurtenances that used to be the prerogative of the upper classes only. This sociological change is manifest in the present reorganization of the school system. All education beyond the primary is considered secondary. Except in the private schools, education is free. The educational program is not standardized. Especially is this true of the modern, technical, and further-education schools. Increasingly large numbers are taking advantage of secondary education. One-third of a school population from ages two to eighteen are in secondary schools. I think we can say that the present British system is in accord with the social philosophy of the age.

France

Now we come to France. For many decades, education was the privilege of the bourgeoisie, with emphasis on preparation for a civilized enjoyment of life. A pseudonobility survived the Revolution and laid its stamp on French social life that seemed to glorify the dilettante. The man of knowledge became the ideal product of the schools. There is, in a way, a correspondence between France and Old China in the emphasis given to the storing up of facts as a mark of the educated man. To make any progress up the social and economic ladder, an individual had to be a product of the secondary school. Those who could not avail themselves of this privilege sought employment, either as apprentices or ordinary laborers. In 1872, 20 percent of the population was illiterate.

Education in France is the most highly centralized of any of the countries in our study. The Ministry of National Education controls the curriculum and general administration of all schools. Children are required to attend school from six to four-

teen years of age. Out of ten children, six to thirteen years of age, nine attend primary schools and one the *lycee, college*, or the *cours complementaires*. Out of ten that are fourteen to nineteen years of age, two receive general secondary education; two, technical education; and six work and receive postschool instruction. Primary schools are for children from six to eleven or twelve years. The studies are quite comparable to those offered in our elementary schools. From eleven or twelve to fifteen or eighteen years, students may take secondary education in a *lycee, college*, or the extension of the primary school in a *cours complementaire*. The same work is offered in all three types, except that the *cours complementaire* gives instruction only in the first cycle of four years; but, in addition to the regular academic work that characterizes the *lycees* and the *colleges*, classes in the *cours complementaires* are also offered in commercial, trade, and agricultural subjects. At the end of four years, in all three types of secondary schools students take an examination for a certificate which admits them to civil service jobs or the second cycle of three years. Here they choose from four courses whose distinguishing characteristics are the varying amounts of classical languages, modern languages, mathematics and science. At the end of the second year of this cycle, students take the first part of the baccalaureate examination, and the second part at the end of the seventh and last year. This baccalaureate is the most important landmark in French education. It is "conducted by a jury of *lycee* and university professors in a series of three or four three-hour written examinations given at the seventeen university centers. Oral sessions follow a few days later and are composed of six to eight interrogations of twenty minutes each. Like all national examinations in France, they are public. Candidates must pass the written examinations before being admitted to the oral ones. . . . The baccalaureate is the first university degree, and gives access to higher education. It is relatively difficult—55 percent of the candidates to the first part and 60 percent of the candidates to the second

part are normally passed. The season of the *bachot* is a time of anxiety for adolescents, and their parents, throughout France."¹

It is this baccalaureate examination that is receiving the most severe criticisms of French secondary education from the French themselves. Movements are on foot to reduce its severity and to lessen its importance as the *summum bonum* of secondary education, but these attempts at reform are meeting stiff opposition from the traditionalists.

There are, however, a couple of bright lights on the educational horizon. The first is that the same ferment that is working its way into the lives of the underprivileged all over the world, and I mean *all over the world*, is making itself felt in France. Several years ago an experiment in secondary education came with the introduction of "new classes," *classes nouvelles*, into the first cycle of the secondary school.

Students volunteer for these classes which are based on the activity principle. Attempts are made to offer as much creative work as possible and relate the studies to the environment and modern life. "Each child has a limited number of teachers who continually study his needs and orient his work."²

The second is the attention being given to technical or vocational education.

Free, complementary, three-year vocational courses are available to fourteen-year-olds. Technical colleges, and professional and industrial arts and crafts schools provide training for positions in industry and commerce. National schools of commerce, engineering, arts and crafts, and applied science prepare executives and research workers. Nearly all industries have established schools to train workers and supervisors, notably the coal and steel firms of Lorraine and the oil firms in southwest France . . .

Agricultural education is carried on through extension work, apprenticeship centers, home economics schools, regional agricultural schools, and at the national schools of higher educational education. Continuation schools in farming and home economics are required of young people from fourteen to seventeen years of age who take up farming and do not continue secondary school studies. Public centers of "popular education" in each community

... carry on some adult education. Youth movements have been founded spontaneously to pursue a variety of recreational and intellectual activities.³

Nevertheless, there is a feeling that insufficient guidance is being given the eleven-year olds in the type of work they are capable of pursuing.

Social origin always influences the choice from the psychological point of view; the higher and better informed social classes look to education to maintain or promote their children in the social scale; on the other hand, in certain classes tradition requires that the child should begin work as early as possible (e.g., among farmers, artisans, tradesmen and agricultural workers this is the case) and the cultural tradition of the family limits school to primary education alone. Besides, many children, even able ones, wish as soon as possible to engage in some active occupation and in social life and dislike remaining at school beyond the age of fourteen.⁴

The results of the interplay of these different factors is shown by the following figures: Children of eleven or twelve years choose one of the forms of secondary education (general, technical, supplementary) in the following proportions:

- 13% of the children of agricultural workers
- 16% of the children of farmers
- 21% of the children of industrial workers
- 39% of the children of tradesmen and artisans
- 43% of the children of employees and foremen
- 47% of the children of minor officials
- 67% of the children of industrialists
- 81% of the children of members of the staff of industrial and commercial organizations
- 86% of the children of higher officials
- 87% of the children of members of the learned professions⁵
- Only 8% of the children of working class people attend lycees or colleges.⁶

To sum up what is happening educationally in France in relation to the cultural development of the country, I can't do better than to quote from the main source of so much material for this paper.

The most far reaching changes in education in France, in the long run, are bound to result from the adoption of a new philosophy of education. Up to recent decades the goal of the educational system has been the development of a cultural elite, selected from the main body of students by demanding competitions and trained through an intensive study of the great literature and history of past ages. Respect and honors have gone to the scholar only.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 19, 20.

⁴ Roger Gal. *Guiding Principles of French Educational Reform*. International Review of Education. Vol. III, No. 4, 1957. Martinus Nijhoff, 'S-Gravenhage, p. 472.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 472.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 473.

¹ *Education in France*, Comité France Actuelle. Paris, 1957, p. 7.

² *Ibid.* p. 6.

France has been called an intellectual's paradise, but the excessive academic requirements of the schools have been criticized as placing unreasonable strain upon teachers and pupils. The old system developed too many literary and legal talents, too little scientific and economic competence, and gave small concern to the needs of modern society. The new philosophy of education now being written into the history of French education calls for a wider course of study. It turns the emphasis away from the past with its classical origins, to include a better knowledge of the present world.

It is hoped that the competitive and selective process which singled out a few outstanding scholars for advanced education, primarily in classical subjects, will give way to a process of direction-finding (*orientation*) and specialization (*determination*) that will develop character and aptitudes in all students and direct them toward the activities and training most suitable to each and most needed by society.¹

Germany

Germany is the refinement, if such it can be called, of the Teutonic glorification of combat and warfare. Our stereotype of the Germany of Caesar's time is that of bellicose tribes; of the Middle Ages, of robber barons; of the pre-Bismarck era, of competing states; of the 19th century, of military influence on social life; and of the Hitlerian period, of excessive militarism. There must have been something in the Teutonic hormones, genes, or what have you, that kept egging them on to surpass their enemies, both internally and externally. Maybe the geography and climate of the country had something to do with it. Whatever the factors that produced the Germans of the 19th and 20th centuries, we recognize in them a willingness to do a job, a thoroughness in work, a balance between work and play, a pride in accomplishment, a worship of neatness and order, and an intense love of country. Particularly striking is their inventive and mechanical genius. A parallel characteristic is their use of leisure in the fields of music and art. If they didn't invent the Continental Sunday, they were great promoters of it.

Wherever we look in Europe we find evidences of a caste system, either in full operation or gradually decreasing in intensity. The feudal system handed down just such a separation of classes. In Germany

there developed the junker class which was high in government control and operation. It had a profound influence, especially in Prussia, in the development of a parallel system of education, the gymnasial type with which we are so familiar. The stereotype was an eight-year elementary school attended by the children of the common people, who, at its conclusion, became laborers or apprentices; and secondary schools, beginning at the age of ten, attended by the children of the upper classes. In the latter the emphasis was two fold: preparation for civil service jobs as in France and preparation for entrance to a university. The odd thing about these secondary schools is that there were several kinds, all independent of each other, the difference being in the emphasis given to classical languages, modern languages, and mathematics and science. A student did not go to a school and choose a curriculum. He chose his curriculum and went to the school that offered it. When the school he wanted to attend was not available he had to choose another even if it did not meet his particular needs. But, among all the varied schools, the one with prestige was the Gymnasium, the school that emphasized the study of Latin and Greek.

Now, why do I talk about the schools that have been, when modification is recurring? Because, in spite of the impact of other nations upon the school system of Germany, in spite of efforts on the part of some progressively minded Germans, and in spite of the simplification of the school system under Hitler, there has been in the new republic of West Germany a reversion to the pre-war status. There is a Ministry of Education at Bonn, but each state or *Land* determines its own type of school organization. It is impossible, therefore, to state categorically that such and such is the school system of Germany any more than we can say that a particular school system is characteristic of our country. Hamburg, Bremen, and West Berlin have taken the most advanced steps in extending the period of elementary education to a minimum of six years and, in some cases, eight or nine, whereas Baden-Wuerttemberg has gone back to the four-year *Grund-*

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 20.

schule and a parallel system of secondary and elementary schools.

In February, 1955, the Permanent Conference of Ministers of Education agreed to extend "educational opportunity by (1) reducing the number of types of middle and secondary schools; (2) providing for a common plan of studies from class 5 through class 8 of the modern language Gymnasium and the mathematics-science Gymnasium; (3) making English the first foreign language in each of these types of schools; (4) providing on completion of class 7 of the elementary school, for a shortened form of the modern language and the mathematics-science Gymnasiums which does not at the beginning require knowledge of a foreign language; and (5) providing opportunity for admission to the middle school extending from the completion of class 4 to completion of class 7 in the elementary school."¹

The over-all plan envisaged by this agreement embraces a four-year elementary school, followed by a middle school for the next four years. This is the path to be followed by the majority of children, upon the completion of which they go to full-time or, as apprentices, to part-time vocational schools. It is in these schools that the German artisan receives specialized training which has made him such a perfectionist, whether it be in industry or agriculture.

The agreement further recommended three types of secondary schools proper: the classical language Gymnasium, the modern language Gymnasium, and the mathematics-natural science Gymnasium. A common plan of studies will operate in the first four years of the two latter types of schools.

Thus we see that the recidivists, if we may call them such, have won the day so far as a revised German educational program is concerned. Only in West Berlin, Hamburg, and Bremen have there been real efforts to democratize both elementary and secondary education. In these three cities there is an attempt to consider

all education after the sixth year as secondary, whether academic or practical. In the rest of Germany, as outlined by the 1955 Dusseldorf agreement, there is a revival, it seems to me, of the parallel phase of education that intensifies class consciousness. I hope that I am mistaken. Having had the good fortune to work with the Bremen secondary schools in their efforts at reorganization following World War II, and witnessing their attempts to do away with the caste system of parallel schools, or the parallel system of caste schools, I feel somewhat depressed at the seeming return to a system contrary to the democratic processes that West Germany is supposed to practice and to teach. I must in all fairness, however, give credit to the Germans for their fostering the kindergarten, a truly democratic educational invention, and for providing such schools as those of the Rudolph Steiner type. The latter is private, not public, but there are schools here and there in Germany that feel the influence of the Rudolph Steiner philosophy.

I wonder if the following quotation, characterizing Japan and Germany at the turn of the century, has any validity today:

In general political attitudes, the conceptions of the relation of the people to state, there was a greater similarity between Japan and Germany than between Japan and any other Western Country. Authoritarianism was congenial to both. To both the right of the few in the social scale to rule was in the nature of things. That both elevated the military arts and military activities to the top of the scale of values was an expression of an inner community of attitudes and concepts. Neither had—or perhaps has even now—been influenced under the surface by the fundamental values and ideas that were formative for Western peoples in modern times—rights of the individual, subordination of the state to the individual, sovereignty of the people and the supremacy of their judgment over the desires of officials in government, the indispensability of the consent of the governed to the acts of government. To both there has been something messy in democracy, and they have found themselves uncomfortable in attempts to practice it. Order is the highest good, and order comes with unquestioning authority and unquestioning obedience. This, for both, is nature's plan.²

The picture, however is really not so

¹ United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education, *Germany Revisited*, Bulletin 1957, No. 2, p. 37.

² Nathaniel Peffer, *The Far East*. University of Michigan Press, 1958, pp. 141-42.

dark as I may have led you to believe. I have mentioned three bright spots; namely, West Berlin, Hamburg, and Bremen. In various places throughout West Germany, we do find teacher-parent councils, a substitution of cooperative pupil-teacher relationships for the domineering type, discussion procedures in classrooms in place of a formal, didactic approach, present-day problems brought up in history and geography classes, elective shop and home economics, and increasing use of audio-visual materials. Public interest in the affairs of the school is increasing. Although only a small percent of children of secondary school age still are in the gymnasium-type school, more attention is being given to the selection of these pupils, somewhat akin to what is happening in England. School buildings are being modernized, especially on the elementary level. In Bremen I have seen the most beautiful elementary school buildings I have ever seen. Architects all over the country are vying with one another in fashioning attractive and serviceable buildings.

It is difficult for me to evaluate the German system of education in relation to the culture of the country, first, because there is no one type of school, and second, because a dichotomous relationship exists between the outward form of democracy and the deep-seated junkerism that refuses to die. Germany has a long way to go to relate its school organization to the changing society of which it is an integral part.

The Soviet Union

We now come to the fourth major country and the rapport that exists between its schools and its society. Under the Tsarist government a gap existed between the upper and lower social strata that was wider than in any other country in Europe. This tremendous gap, that intensified wealth and poverty, must have been partially responsible for the intransigent attitude adopted by the Bolsheviks in refusing educational advantages to the children of the bourgeoisie in the early years after the Revolution. For some ten to fifteen years

the Communists were more or less feeling their way, experimenting in devious ways with a type of education that would suit a proletarian state with the emphasis on preparation for industry and agriculture. What came out was an end-on system of seven years that emphasized job training. There were vocational schools attached to factories, there were technicums, there were teacher's institutes, there was apprenticeship, there were schools for illiterates. In the larger cities there were ten-year schools, three years on top of the seven-year schools, the graduates of which could go into the university or a higher technical institute.

The above is about what the picture is today. But the Twenty First Congress under the leadership of N. S. Khrushchev, which met the latter part of last year, promulgated a Seven-Year Plan which vitally affects the school organization of the Soviet Union. The Seven-Year Plan envisages a tremendous expansion in the industrial, agricultural, and economic life of the Union. To achieve set goals, necessary changes in the educational system will go into effect in 1959.

The ethical principles of socialism, said N. S. Khrushchev, are characterized by a concern for the common good of all people, by mutual assistance and friendship, by cooperation and collective effort. They make for the rounded development of the individual personality within the framework of a collective in which antagonism between men is eliminated and the brotherhood of man is created.

In a socialist society each individual feels that the whole of society, the state, is concerned with his welfare. The Soviet man reciprocates by concern for the society of which he is a part. To contribute to that society, to create new wealth for the benefit of all its members, becomes his ultimate goal. . . .

Turning to education, Nikita Khrushchev spoke of the importance the Communist Party attaches to the training of the generation that will be the administrators of tomorrow. The Soviet school system, he indicated, is being reorganized not because we are short of labor but because we want to improve our education, to bring school closer to life. Proposed by the plan is a large program of school construction to accommodate an increasing number of students on all levels, from the nursery through the university. The number of children to be accommodated in kindergartens will be growing from 2.28 million to 4.2 million in the next seven years. Boarding schools will be required for no fewer than 2.5 million. Institutes and colleges will be graduating 2.3 million spe-

cialists as compared with the 1.7 million specialists for the previous seven-year period. By 1965 the total number of specialists with a higher education will exceed 4.5 million, an increase of 50 percent over 1958. . . .

The building of Communism presupposes not only an unprecedented development of the economy, science and culture; it offers unusual scope for the fullest development of all the creative potentials and talents of man. Writers, theatre people, composers, sculptors and painters must raise the content and artistic levels of their works still higher. . . .

The seven year plan adopted by the Twenty First Congress is hailed by the country generally as a great and historic landmark in the progress of the Soviet people. There is every reason to call this Congress the Congress of the Builders of Communism, marking, as it does, the beginning of the period of extensive building of a communist society in the Soviet Union.¹

The eight-year school is to be basic throughout the Soviet Union, with the first four years elementary in nature, and the last four as the beginning of secondary education. This eight-year school will supplant the present seven-year school and will accommodate children between seven and fifteen or sixteen years. "The extra year will be fully accounted for by the new activities described as 'polytechnical' studies—home economics for girls, school workshops for boys, work-experience projects, visits to plants, field trips, physical education, and youth organization activities."²

A brief statement about these youth organization activities is pertinent. In the Soviet Union there is a system of education that practically parallels the regular school. Pupils are members of these organizations from the time they enter school until they leave. Between the ages of eight and eleven, they begin as Octoberists. Between ten and sixteen, they become Pioneers. Finally, between fourteen and twenty-three, they advance to membership in the Komsomol. It is out of the Komsomol that the new members of the Communist party are selected. In these organizations (we would call them extra-

curricular), youths are indoctrinated in communist ideology. Consequently, these organizations may be said to exert an even stronger influence on the minds and attitudes of youth than the regular classes.

The report plan as published is a relentlessly consistent argument on how to apply its avowed goal, i.e., "to strengthen the link between school and life." This is a euphemism meaning, roughly, that all youths must in the future be trained for a specific niche in the labor force while acquiring the requisite *modicum* of general education. The work "polytechnical" which occupies a large place in the reform plan, has about the same general meaning.³

Upon leaving the eight-year school, most pupils will enter production jobs. Those who hope to receive further schooling have three possibilities open to them. They may continue in schools of working youth and rural youth, after a year spent in factory or on the farm, when they may elect to study in these schools in shift, evening, or correspondence classwork. A new type of three-year school will combine academic and polytechnical work with "a type of factory or agricultural apprenticeship corresponding to the choice of profession. . . . Upon graduation from this school, the student will be qualified to apply for enrollment in a higher educational institution and will already have earned a certificate testifying to his qualifications in his professions."⁴

A third type of school is the technicum, whose job is to turn out technicians as such. My guess is that many so-called scientists are graduates of these schools. For some 95 percent of enrollees, this is the end of their formal education. Only 5 percent is eligible to go on into higher technological institutes which award an engineering degree.

There is still another form, the trade school, that seems to parallel the three types of schools just mentioned. These trade schools will operate from one to three years, depending upon the complexity of the skill being taught. They will be organized geographically, will operate independently of factory or farm, and will

¹ U.S.S.R. *Twenty-First Congress Adopts Seven-Year Plan*, No. 3 (30), Washington, D. C., February, 1959, pp. 4, 5, and 7.

² Albert Boiter, "The Khrushchev School Reform," *Comparative Education Review*, February, 1959, Vol. 2, No. 3, p. 9.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

offer instruction in the kind of skills characteristic of the area.

There are to be two types of higher educational institutions, one that "trains engineers who will be capable not only of making full use of modern machines but also of creating the machines of the future." Those who aspire to get into one or other of these institutions must be graduates of the eleven-year school, must pass competitive examinations, and, what seems to be most important, be recommended by the Komsomol and prominent party members.

If the ideals of the reform plan can be fully realized, there will be no students at the university level in the future who are there to pursue knowledge for its own sake. The ultimate test of enrollment policy is the requirement that it be wielded "so that really the best people will be selected, those who will be capable of successfully applying in production—after a brief period of time—the knowledge they have gained." It is on this utilitarian theme that the whole reform plan is based. . . .

The real impetus behind Khrushchev's school reform, so far as one can judge from Soviet materials, seems to come from ideological and social rather than economic considerations. . . . The reforms are more than a pious wish about the future. They catalog the specific indictment by the Soviet leaders of the present generation of Soviet young people.¹

EDUCATIONAL CHANGE AND SOCIAL FERMENT

Of the four countries whose educational systems we have examined, none shows the insistent singleness of purpose that characterized the Soviet. Totalitarianism in the most extreme form has set about the reorganization of the human society over which it wields absolute power with a ruthless determination to try to make over the human race. The schools have been seized as the medium through which this transformation is to be accomplished. What the pupil is to study, how and when he is to study it, how he is to be thoroughly indoctrinated in the ideologies of Communism, who is to go into what jobs, who is to continue into higher educational institutions and which they are to enter, all these are determined from above. The individual has very little choice in the matter.

Youth is an impressionable age. Witness the extent to which Soviet domination of the youths of East Berlin has tended to set brother against brother, sister against sister. Hate of non-Communists is boldly fostered in literature, history, science, and even mathematics. Is it any wonder that the oncoming generation may become one that can see only one side of the world crisis? On the other hand, may it not also be possible that, in spite of the Politburo's attempts to regiment the thinking of the populace, something in the human breast, not of all but of some, will rebel against this unilateral indoctrination and express its opposition either intellectually or physically? The Hungarian uprising in October, 1956, may be a straw in the wind to give evidence of what might happen. It is possible that the human spirit will take only so much dictation and then turn upon the dictator. Another enigmatic item is the cultural exchange program that is being jointly fostered by the Soviet Union and by us. Will it result in the breaking down of some of the barriers that Khrushchev and others are raising and bring about a better understanding, the one of the other? In that case, what will happen to the implementation of the Seven-Year or any subsequent plan?

Wilson's Fourteen Points started something—a wave of internationalism that profoundly intensified rather than lessened group differences and tensions. Peoples all over the world have become aware of themselves. Especially is this true in those areas where colonialism held sway for so many decades. According to Nathaniel Peffer² the West behaved in such a lordly fashion in its relation to the people of the countries they had subjugated that they instilled in these peoples feelings of repression and resentment, which, when freedom to rule themselves was granted, were translated into open hatred and hostility. Then, too, they had had dinned into them the ideals of democracy to such an extent that its outward form became their

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

² *The Far East*, University of Michigan Press, 1958, *passim*.

political and social goal. This feeling permeated even the thinking of what we might term the coolie mind to such an extent that an educational revolution is taking place in India, Indonesia, China, Burma, Thailand, Vietnam, Ghana, Nigeria, and elsewhere. Each country is devising ways to educate the populace, to make it literate and able to participate in a democratic society, little recking, however, that the so-called world democracies have been working a long time to get where they are today. Unfortunately, the idea that democracy can be achieved in a hurry is bringing about confusion worse confounded in many of these post-colonial countries. Nevertheless, the ferment is there.

The strange thing, however, about this whole business is that this social ferment is not confined to the countries we have mentioned. It is becoming characteristic of peoples everywhere. And that's why I am mentioning it here. Class consciousness has been aroused to the point where it is challenging the type of education which, in European countries, has reserved the secondary for the few and the elementary for the many. I have mentioned the rising voice of the proletariat. The Soviet Union has attempted to still this voice by fiat. Other countries are endeavoring to meet its demands by revamping their school systems so as truly to bring about equal educational opportunity for all. England seems to be doing the best job. Germany is still riding the fence. France is doing a lot of arguing which may eventuate in significant modifications. What I am trying to say is that the people's voice is being heard in no uncertain terms in clamoring for recognition that "I am as good as you are," and asserting, "It is the responsibility of the state to see that I am not discriminated against because I happen to be born in a 'lowly manger.'"

Well, I have tried to trace the main features of the educational systems of four major countries and I have also tried to

relate them to their own milieux. *Chacun a son gout* may well describe the relevance of this relationship. I think we may be in danger of looking upon any one of these organizations and drawing invidious conclusions from comparing it with our vaunted system. In my introduction I tried to emphasize the fact that the culture of a country is the sum of its traditions, and that the type of education that it produces harmonizes with this culture. But I have also tried to demonstrate that changing conditions in the culture produce changes in the educational system. Changes of one sort or another are constantly occurring in each of the four countries I have discussed. That's why it is difficult to speak with finality about any of them. To me, this is one of the most heartening aspects of my investigation. I have found no evidence of a static attitude. Each country is conducting a self-examination of the relationship of its school system to the demands of the people for more and more equality. And each is striving to meet these demands in terms of its own culture. Each, then, is consistent in the way it is trying to solve its problems. The British are getting away from the snobbish appeal of the schools. The French are looking at education more realistically. The Germans are still fumbling in their attempts to retain the parallel system of education in the face of growing democracy, although there are spots where the issues of the day are really being met. Even the Soviet Union is modifying its system to be more in accord with the avowed aims of its society.

We say that individual differences merit attention. Is what is true of a person also true of the society of which he is a member? If it is, then can we rightfully say that our society may cast stones at our neighbors across the seas? We have our own culture and traditions and we are adapting our schools to this culture and these traditions. Let us grant to others the privilege of doing the same.

A Philosophical and Structural Basis for an Educational System Appropriate for the American People and Their Culture

THE TASK which has been assigned to me this evening is one of almost frightening proportions. I have accepted it with humility and with a zeal to speak frankly, forcefully, and intelligently, if possible, concerning our present pattern for education. Because of my background and because of the current controversy, my remarks will be directed largely to that segment of education dealing with secondary school youth. If there are times when my enthusiasm tends to become evangelistic, it is because, in my opinion, we are witnessing a struggle which will determine whether we preserve or destroy our plan for educating all American youth.

Out of our Old World background came our elementary system of eight grades. There have been modifications. Added to this have been the nursery and kindergarten segments. Within the past few decades the junior high school has been accepted as a natural transition to the secondary division. There have been some in recent months who have advocated seven years, not including nursery school and kindergarten, as a sufficient period for elementary training. This suggestion bears investigation and research.

The high school has sometimes been described as that segment of our system which is truly American. At least, we may say that it evolved to meet the needs of a

rapidly growing and prosperous nation. Today, however, the American high school is under the severest scrutiny. Its organization, curriculum, and methods are being examined and evaluated. The most stringent critics would effect sweeping changes, some of which would even change the nature of the high school to such an extent that it would resemble little more than a college preparatory school.

All of us must be aware of the continuing necessity for appraisal, evaluation, criticism, and change. Throughout the years, the members of our profession have been among our most severe critics. Constructive criticism must always be accepted. When, however, the arguments are based upon ignorance, fallacious figures, and incorrect statements, it would seem imperative that some of us ought to take a firm stand. A very short time ago, a young lady taking courses in education said, "Someone ought to answer the critics." She further explained that young people in colleges are beginning to have serious doubts about education.

I do not wish to be put in the position of criticizing the critics. Nevertheless, they ought to be given some scrutiny. Who are they? For several months, many writers and speakers have attempted to categorize them. One speaker listed as many as twelve different groups. I shall mention five.

First, there are those who believe sincerely that there are weaknesses in our present system. They criticize the quality of our product. They desire a high school

* Mr. Logsdon is superintendent of Thornton Township High School and Junior College at Harvey. This address was delivered April 21, 1959, before the Commission on Research and Service at Chicago.

that will serve the needs of individuals in a nucleonic age. They deserve to be heard.

A *second* group would have us revert to the old European pattern for secondary education. In this group there are individuals who have been products of the European system and have come to our land for greater opportunity. In spite of the obvious failure of European secondary schools to meet the needs of their own times and specifically so within the last four decades, these critics would change the basic structure of our schools to benefit principally the college-going youth. We need to forgive them until they have had sufficient time to discover that our high schools are a product of our own heritage and have served to promote the ideals of those who came here to participate freely in making the concept of freedom a reality.

A *third* group, comparatively small in numbers, has discovered that it can be profitable to join the critics. Their writing and speaking has been financially profitable. No doubt some of them have sincere convictions. If their materials were scholarly and statistically accurate, some of us would have less misgivings concerning their efforts.

A *fourth* group, and perhaps the most important one, may be classed under the term "mass media." Newspapers and magazines have been filled with the "education controversy." Many within the ranks of education feel that they have been judged by "mass media" and found wanting. In some cases, certain publications appear to have a thirst for the blood of the professional educator. Schools do make good targets. Most schools have some weaknesses. They are defenseless in that there is no very effective way for any refutation to obtain adequate coverage. However, one attempt was made. About a year ago one periodical carried an article depicting the weaknesses of an American student when compared with his Russian counterpart. The manner of securing the material and its presentation was considered by most informed people to be something less than honest. A suggestion was

made that discrimination be used in purchasing such a periodical, not because of the criticism but because of the unfairness in conditions of comparison over which the ownership must have had control. Although the suggestion said nothing concerning removal of the right to publish, almost every newspaper and many magazines interpreted it as a movement to destroy freedom of the press. Is it wrong to seek voluntary action to protest what one feels to be dishonest? Many thought it was, and many of those were within the ranks of secondary school principals. I do not subscribe to that view. It seems to me that through the loose use of statistics and the manipulation of data mass media sometimes present a slanted picture. A thinking person must ask the question: Are these forces adequately prepared to make fair judgment concerning education?

In the *fifth* place, there are those within our communities who suffered real or imaginary injustices within our schools. Those who feel that they were victims of unfairness and mediocre training create a nucleus for discontents. Every youngster within our schools should leave us feeling that his educational experience has been worthwhile.

Now let us turn again for a moment to an historical consideration of our educational pattern. There is no doubt that our early concepts were borrowed from the educational practices of European nations. These practices were subjected to the influences of a frontier society. Out of these influences has developed a system of education devoted to at least two fundamental principles. This system holds *first*, that every individual has a right to achieve for himself, and *second*, he has the responsibility for the improvement of the welfare and betterment of all others in his society. It has been our sincere belief that the individual is of foremost importance in our educational pattern. Through individual improvement we guarantee a strong, wholesome, and prosperous nation.

What has happened to this concept for the role of education? Do we strongly be-

lieve in it? At best it would seem to be undergoing considerable challenge. From the background of contention, it appears that we are being asked to prepare first for the national welfare. Is it proper that our schools be geared to minister first and foremost to the needs of our nation? If this is necessary for our survival, then it must be done. Is it too much to ask that we be fairly sure that this change is necessary before we relegate the individual and his own needs to the background? Also, are we to achieve this through revolutionizing the high school pattern?

If this change is necessary, let us make the most of it. Let us accept it with fervor. Our national well-being must be preserved at all costs. As school people, let us also insist that the other segments of our society do likewise. Let us say to our industrialists that national interests are first and their own private interests must be adapted to that pattern. Is it too much to ask labor to question its actions in terms of whether or not national welfare is being served first? Can we as citizens accept a more austere type of living in the interest of paying higher taxes so that our educational needs can be geared to play the necessary role? This could mean a drastic change in our living habits.

The point that I wish to make here is just this: We cannot expect the schools which have emerged as the products of our free society to be geared to serve the needs of a society which does not exist. We call for higher scholarship, increased performance, and self-sacrifice on the part of our students that we may become a stronger foe in a world ignited by tensions of every sort. Are our citizens in their daily lives working, striving, self-sacrificing, and contributing in every way to all aspects of our national defense? With this in mind, there are some suggestions for improvements that could be made within the basic framework of our existing secondary schools.

The comprehensive high school has been described as being the institution which seeks to provide a program of secondary education for all youth, with due regard to the great variety of immediate and even-

tual personal goals. It is one plan whereby young people from all sides of the track can share in school experiences. They work together in the student council. They attend the same social functions and share in homeroom activities. Sufficient time is allowed the student to make his choice of occupation. He may change his mind. In the meantime, his course should be designed to furnish a good background of general education.¹

Our basic purpose, at the secondary level, then, would seem to be that of improving the comprehensive high school. The following suggestions are made: *First*, require higher standards of performance for all pupils in all subjects. While I have not visited foreign secondary schools, those who have, have reported that perhaps the most significant difference between our students and theirs is the zealous effort which is made to achieve; and this is done by motivation which apparently is not generated by the individual class room teacher. Increased performance would be required not only in the so-called academic areas but in all other subjects offered.

Second, provide for the needs of all students: the gifted, the average, and the emotionally and physically handicapped as well. This area has been the subject of so much discussion that it needs no further philosophical elaboration. It needs to become a reality.

Third, our curriculum content needs some refinement. Perhaps some subjects need to be eliminated and others added. This should be done only after thorough study and research. There are other areas that contain duplication and repetition. Have we not dulled our national interest in such matters as health, safety, conservation, and home and family living by shallow consideration and monotonous repetition? Somehow these areas need to be refined, placed firmly, and given a higher priority for assimilation than has been true in the past.

¹ David B. Austin, "The Potential of the Comprehensive High School," *NASSP Bulletin*, 37, No. 198, p. 174.

Fourth, we need better programs for counseling and guidance for all youth. Somehow this aspect of education has not received enough intelligent consideration. It has been so often confused with the term, adjustment, that it has been looked upon by our citizens as something which represents a waste of taxpayers' money. When we can demonstrate that it is economical to help our pupils achieve a role that is in harmony with their aptitudes and desires and in the long run beneficial to the society in which they live, we shall have solved the problem of securing support for a program of counseling and guidance.

Fifth, it is imperative that we give dignity to the vocational side of the school's offerings and to the world of work. All too many parents have committed themselves to a long-range program for their children so that the children may have an easier life. This ought to be a wrong conclusion in today's world. We need to emphasize that it is not degrading to find that one's role takes him into the industrial or commercial world. Our nation became strong, in part, through work. In all too many schools, students feel that it is necessary to aspire to college to preserve prestige within the school. To a degree, our schools have caused this attitude. We need to see that it is corrected.

Sixth, higher standards of preparation for the staff should be required in academic and technical areas. In too many schools, teachers without sufficient subject matter preparation are being allowed to teach. In others, staff members lack sufficient training in technique and personnel to be most effective. Finally, our teachers need strong education in the part education has played in the development of our nation. If this constitutes indoctrination, well and good! Our system of education has demonstrated its part in our national achievements. Every member of the profession should have a thorough knowledge of the development of our educational system and particularly its share in contributing to a society that now has the responsibility for leadership in a free world.

Seventh, let us develop a method of providing positive and wholesome opportunities for those youth who do not wish to be in the secondary schools. Perhaps the teachers' greatest problem is dealing with those students who even after having received expert counseling and guidance do not wish to remain in school. Under the present framework, most schools are unable to provide for them. Perhaps the answer to this can be found in the pattern of the Civilian Conservation Corps developed during the nineteen-thirties. This could be done by the state. It could be done by enlisting the efforts of several adjoining communities. If necessary, it could be done by the Federal Government. These youth should be provided with work opportunities, educational experience, and wholesome leadership. The program would be costly. In the long-run, however, it could prove to be an economical step in our zeal to improve the education for all the children of all the people. In fact, it could be in the interest of the national welfare as well.

In our efforts to make improvements within our schools, the total burden cannot be placed upon the shoulders of the educational profession. If we are to characterize our schools as mediocre, the material culture in which we live may be partly responsible. This may well become an era which history will characterize as the period when "mediocrity was subsidized" in all the various aspects of our society. Must our schools adjust to this concept?

I feel certain that the profession which I represent will find such adaptation distasteful. It is my hope that we will not conform to some of the unfortunate demands of our critics. Likewise, we may also hope that our pupils will not adjust to some of the present ills within our society, if adjustment means acceptance. May we not hope that we may follow the prototype of the people who created the basic framework of a great nation. They did not do it by "adjustment" as we define that term. They were positive rebels. As a professional educator, I hope there will be many such rebels within our own ranks.

Labor's Viewpoint on Education

CONCEPTS OF THE PURPOSE of education have undergone profound changes through the ages, as we all know. And the concepts which are commonly accepted today are relatively new in terms of history.

For example, education for everybody and not just a select few, which we believe in today, was an idea proposed by the first labor unions organized in America. But that was 130 years ago; in practice, education for everybody, is much more recent. Strong agitation for compulsory school attendance laws did not spring up until the 1860's and following decades. Today the idea of free public education is expressed in federal and state laws, buttressed by decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court, but public acceptance of the idea is not complete. Equal opportunity for free public education is not yet fully realized.

I feel it is important to call attention to the fact that changes in ideas regarding the purpose of education have taken place continuously, though gradually. It is important because it appears possible that changes in some of our basic concepts in education may be occurring at the present time. The current changes I refer to are those which may be caused by the facts of life in the world today: the underlying fact of the protracted cold war and the sensational news reports about the success of the Russians in hitting the moon and, earlier, in launching sputniks. The Russian accomplishments, as we know, have stimulated our interest in sciences, mathematics, and engineering and, also, in the Russian language. This interest re-

flects our concern for national survival and may ultimately result in deep changes in American ideas about the purpose of education—changes which could bring us around full circle to those held by the ancient Greeks.

It was generally accepted in all the city-states of Greece, that the good man was a good citizen. This, as it stands, was and still is a sound and valid proposition. But in Sparta this proposition evolved into a system repugnant to nearly everything we Americans hold dear. In Sparta the all-importance of the state and the subservience to it of the individual were developed to an extreme degree. The only purpose of education in that society was the enhancement of the state. To see that the job was done right the state took complete charge. After a brief childhood, all the young citizens were trained directly by the state in a kind of barrack life, the boys to become soldiers and the girls the mothers of soldiers. Sparta may serve as a warning to us as we contemplate our course in education. The warning is that of going to extremes. It is a warning to remember particularly in these days when it is so much in the interest of the state to encourage study in the sciences, mathematics, and languages. We of labor support that interest, of course, but we are also concerned about the long-term interests of our society which require education in moral values, the arts, the humanities, the learned professions and, let me say especially, teaching itself.

In saying this, and in citing the story of Sparta, I wish to be clear and emphatic: I do not deny for one second the obligations which citizens have to their country. Of course, we have such obligations. Certainly, we've got to expand and intensify all efforts required for our physical de-

* Delivered at the Eighth Annual Meeting of the NCA "principals, superintendents, and college and university professors" from Illinois, October 6, 1959. This meeting was held under the auspices of the Illinois State Committee, of which Lowell B. Fisher is chairman.—EDITOR.

fense. Certainly, we want more scientists, mathematicians, and engineers.

But we of labor also want informed citizens and intelligent voters. We want more social scientists and economists, more philosophers, artists and musicians, more doctors, lawyers and learned men and women in all fields. We want more teachers! In some ways, our need here is more critical than in any other field because if we don't train more teachers we won't be able to get either scientists to match those of the Russians or citizens enlightened enough to keep our democracy functioning.

We have the human potential to fulfill all our nation's needs in education. We have it in the numbers and in the intelligence of our people. But the question has been raised as to whether we have the desire and will as a nation to face up to and meet our educational needs. The answer, of course, is up to the American people.

I assure you that my remarks are not merely the expression of my personal opinions—which they definitely are—but I am also stating the official attitude of the AFL-CIO and that of the International Association of Machinists.

It is true that the labor movement was developed out of the compelling, practical need of workers to protect themselves in our complex society, and to enable them to attain a fair share of the fruits of their labor. Carrying out these purposes is, of course, still our primary function. But from the very beginning, ours has also been a movement of ideas and ideals. This is a fact that many outside our ranks seem to forget these days. We seek a better nation and a better world, on the premise that only in this way can we most effectively carry out our primary function of helping to make a better life for our members. And, may I add, the dedication to these ideals, not the misdeeds of a few scoundrels, is the true image of unionism.

The history and folklore of my own union, the International Association of Machinists, discloses a constant interest in education. Tom Talbot, the leader of a group of nineteen railroad machinists who

founded our union at a meeting in a locomotive pit in Atlanta, Georgia, on May 5, 1888, was strongly motivated by a desire that his own children and those of other machinists be given the opportunity to continue their schooling beyond the elementary grades. Talbot reasoned that as machinists improved their earnings through union organization, they would be able to send their kids to high school.

Talbot also saw the union itself as an instrument for the education of the members. Education was on Talbot's mind and in his heart. We see the word "educate" repeated again and again in his speeches and writings which are available to us in union archives. In 1889, at the first convention of the United Machinists and Mechanical Engineers of America (which was the first name of our union), Talbot explained one of the purposes of the union in these typical words:

We desire, by the exchange of ideas and practical experience, to establish the means by which those in our trade may be so educated and elevated that they may be worthy of the vocation to which they have been called.

There is a theoretical or philosophical basis for American labor's attitude toward education. Explaining this constitutes a general answer as to what our attitude is—a whole answer upon which anyone can predicate what our attitude is or will be upon almost any specific issues or aspects of education.

We see education not as an end in itself nor as a force for the enhancement of the individual alone but, rather, as an integral part of our political-social-economic system. Within the same view, we also see education as an instrument for the continuance of the principles, values, and ideals which have been adhered to by our western civilization.

We believe, and always have, in a free, universal educational system. We say that such a system is an indispensable essential to representative, democratic government. It is essential in exactly the same way that freedom of speech, freedom of press, and freedom of religion are essential to our kind of government. In believing

this, we are in a straight line of thinking with the founders of our Republic—not with all of them, to be sure, not with Alexander Hamilton and some others who held that both education and the reins of government should be reserved for a select few. But Jefferson and all those responsible for adopting the Constitution and especially the Bill of Rights calculated that a representative government, deriving its just powers from the consent of the people, will succeed or fail in accordance with the enlightenment of the people.

It is the built-in duty and obligation of a government such as ours to permit, encourage, and promote free and informed discussion of all the issues and policies affecting the general welfare. This includes, of course, the duty of the government to provide equally to all the people the opportunity for full education.

In considering the responsibilities of the government to the general welfare, that is, to the community at large, we do not forget the rights of the individual. The Constitution, of course, does not allow us to forget the individual. As a matter of fact, one of the remarkable things about the Constitution, in this layman's opinion, is the ingenious way in which it sews together the rights of the individual with the duties of the government, at the same time protecting each from the other.

In connection with these remarks I think it would be of interest to you to quote from an official AFL statement on education which was formulated forty years ago. Here is what the AFL Committee on Reconstruction said in its program which was approved by the Convention of the American Federation of Labor in 1919:

Education is advocated which "awakens the mind concerning the application of natural laws and to a conception of independence and progress."

Education should be free for all the people and "Government should exercise supervision over public education, and where necessary maintain adequate public education through subsidies without giving to the government power to hamper or interfere with the development of public education by the states."

Those remarks can stand unaltered, as a

partial expression of labor's attitude today.

To bring you fully up-to-date on labor's views, I must tell you that we are very gravely concerned about the current state of American public education. The report of the AFL-CIO Executive Council to the Convention in San Francisco last month, to which I was a delegate of my union, stated that the "situation of our schools is critical and is rapidly becoming catastrophic."

Here are some of the facts which disturb us: At the beginning of the school year one year ago we had 24,181 secondary school and 68,156 primary school "teachers" in the United States who lacked standard credentials. These 92,337 persons did not meet the educational or experience standards of their own states and so were on sub-standard "emergency" certificates.

The average teacher's salary in 1957-58 was only \$4,520. Many quit teaching each year and are not replaced by new teachers, because even those who want to follow teaching must make a great sacrifice to accept a job with a median beginning salary of a little over \$3,600.

Not long ago a public school in New York City burned, fortunately in the early morning when no students were in the building. The *New York Times*, in an editorial about the fire, called attention to the fact that the school had been built in 1890 with a wing added in 1899. The *Times* further noted that our biggest and richest of cities was using one school which dated back to 1841—twenty years before the outbreak of the Civil War. One-fourth of the school buildings being used in New York City are more than fifty years old. It doesn't require much imagination to guess that many of the schools in rural America are of ancient vintage and also unsafe.

The estimate for the school year beginning September 1958, made by the state school agencies and compiled by the United States Office of Education, was that the nation then needed 65,300 classrooms to take care of overflow of students, 75,200 classrooms to replace obsolete or

otherwise unsatisfactory facilities, or a total of 140,500 additional classrooms.

This, of course, involved no projection to accommodate the increasing school-age population or to adjust for obsolescence of buildings or educational inadequacy of buildings.

New construction of schools has not solved the problem, nor will it. Arthur Flemming, secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, has admitted that it is not certain that new construction will continue at its present rate.

The federal estimate for the school year beginning twelve months ago was that we were nationally 1,843,000 *over* normal classroom capacity in public school enrollment. This means that 5.4 percent of our total enrollment was in excess of capacity.

For several years now standard 12-year primary-secondary education has been universally established. With child labor laws and compulsory school attendance laws, which the unions supported, being enacted in the states, more and more, though not yet all, of our children are receiving an education through high school. For the space age, this level, a high goal in Tom Talbot's day has become a bare minimum.

If America is to regain both the moral world leadership and the technological pre-eminence she once enjoyed, she must provide universal education to the limit of the individual's ability to benefit by it. This is the only way we can put a stop to the deplorable waste implicit in thousands of our top high school graduates ending their studies at the end of the 12th grade. Only a broad federal scholarship program can provide a general social right to education through college, or its equivalent, for our most able students.

With this in view, the AFL-CIO urged the Congress to adopt a nationwide scholarship program for our most able young people, without restriction as to the course or institution of study chosen and without any means or need test. This could be America's decisive answer to the

Soviet educational threat and it could be our most important social advance of this century.

In general terms, the AFL-CIO has been urging and supporting a legislative program intended to provide federal aid for teachers' salaries, school-room construction, and college scholarships.

In none of these areas have we yet realized substantial success. The major educational enactment of the 85th Congress was the National Defense Education Act—Public Law 85-864. This law contains ten titles. Its substantive elements provide: loans to undergraduate students with "special consideration" to those selected students planning to study teaching languages or exact sciences; financial assistance to strengthen science, mathematics, and modern language instruction; grants for graduate fellowships in education; grants for guidance, counseling and testing; aid for language development through language institutes and otherwise; research and experimentation in audio-visual teaching aids; area vocational education programs; science information service; and grants to improve the statistical services of state educational agencies.

While inadequate to meet our national needs, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 does contain much that is of value. For example, America does need improved and realistic testing, guidance, and counseling based on a recognition, among other things, of the skill-ability requirement and dignity of manual workers.

Likewise, a program designed to provide more adequate statistical information through the U. S. Office of Education would be most helpful. There can be no question that emphasis on modern languages, the natural sciences, and teaching is proper; but we do object to the Act's lack of balance on this score. The Act ignores the need for more substantial federal aid in philosophy, the arts, communications, sociology, law, international affairs, and a wide variety of other fields which make America worthy of defense.

The Act provides no general aid for teachers' salaries, school construction, or college scholarships.

Not only is the National Defense Education Act lacking in these provisions, but its administration has also proven faulty. In particular, the Office of Education has shown a disregard of the realities of both the role of vocational education and the importance of the apprenticeship programs.

My union is one of those which are deeply concerned with improving apprentice training programs. We are acutely aware of the constantly increasing demand for highly skilled workers. The demand for workers with more skill and more education has been progressively increasing for many years. This is the inevitable result of the continuous application of research and invention to our whole economy. Many apprentice-trained workers continue their studies after they have become journeymen, foremen, and engineers or enter some other managerial or technical position. This is especially true in my union. The roster of highly placed industrialists and engineers who were journeymen machinists and members of the I.A.M. is a long one.

From the day of its founding, my union has been striving to improve and expand the training of journeymen. Seventy years ago, Tom Talbot said that the machinist trade was "impaired and abused by incompetent workmen—men who had served no apprenticeship and who knew little or nothing about the trade."

Labor's concern about the apprentice-training problem is not a selfish one. The problem is important to the nation. Two years ago *Time* carried a special article entitled "The Shortage in Skills, A New Threat to Industrial Expansion." The article reported that unfilled demands for skilled workers had jumped 17 percent over the year before, compared to 9 percent for other workers. *Time* placed the blame for the shortage of skilled workers on the failure of U. S. industry to face up to "the fact that the tremendous expansion of the economy, plus automation and

the increasing complexity of machines, has created a tremendous new demand for skilled workers." The article stated that "U. S. industry is training only one apprentice for every 50 skilled workers, far less than even the replacement rate."

Time said, "The chief responsibility for obtaining skilled workers and constantly upgrading their skills rests on industry itself. Today most employers realize that they are in an emergency, that they can no longer get their skilled workers by pirating them from other companies, and that the shortage will get worse unless industry assumes leadership in overcoming it."

We have some nine million skilled workers in the U. S. at the present time. The Department of Labor has estimated that we will have to increase that number by five million by 1965, otherwise the economy will fall short of the \$560 billion gross national product expected in that year.

All of us—in industry, labor, government, education—have a vital stake in expanding and improving the training and education of skilled workers.

In the field of education, the 86th Congress took no action this year. Both the House Education and Labor Committee and the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare reported bills to provide federal aid for public school construction, but neither measure was acted upon.

The House Committee reported HR 22, which provides for a \$4.4 billion program over a four-year period for both school construction and increased teachers' salaries. The bill was pigeon-holed by the House Rules Committee. When Congress reconvenes next January 6th, we shall request as urgently as we can that the bill be reported out for final passage.

On September 12 this year, the Senate Committee reported bill S 8, calling for \$1 billion in matching grants for school construction over a two-year period. (The House bill does not require matching funds by the states or municipalities.) The Senate measure will also be germane in the Second Session and the indications

are that it will be given early consideration.

Another education bill which will be considered by the second session of this Congress, and which will receive the support of labor, is the Hill-Elliott General Extension bill. This bill, HR 357 and S 648, provides for federal aid to state universities and land-grant colleges for establishing and developing general university extension programs. These programs benefit people of all walks of life—people who have not completed their high school education as well as college graduates. Adult education programs help people acquire a wide range of education—part-time college instruction, short courses for advanced job training, knowledge in the arts and sciences, and also, at a few universities, shop steward and local union officers' training. The bill specifically states that extension programs for which federal funds may be used may serve individuals as well as groups and organizations, such as community agencies, industrial, labor, and professional groups.

The bill provides two types of annual appropriations: first, an equal amount of \$20,000 to each state; and, secondly, \$8 million which is to be divided among the states according to population. However, a state will be entitled to a share of the \$8 million fund only if it provides an equal sum from state sources.

There is another type of legislation which labor has sought for many years, but for which no bill has been introduced in Congress. This legislation would establish a labor extension service which would provide to organized labor educational facilities similar to those available to farmers through the Department of Agriculture and to businessmen through the Department of Commerce. The Hill-Elliott bill does not cover what we want in this respect. It would add only a little to the educational programs of local unions.

While we look to the federal government to deal with problems national in scope, we do not forget that local interest,

local action, and local support will continue to be the foundation of our schools. In this connection, I have often thought that there is room for much better understanding between the schools and labor, an understanding that would benefit school administrators and teachers, students, labor, and the community as a whole. I feel that the aims and motives of organized labor have not been sufficiently known and understood in the schools, and, perhaps, by the same token labor may not have been sufficiently informed about the problems of the schools.

Those responsible for administering and operating our school systems should not hesitate to seek the cooperation of city and state central labor groups in bringing about greater understanding of school problems and support of necessary improvements. They will find in labor groups people with a direct interest in the schools in which their children are being educated, and a sympathetic understanding of the problems of the teachers.

I sincerely hope that both teachers and school administrators will take full advantage of opportunities for support which exist in the labor movement. The schools deserve the assistance of every American and every group of Americans in overcoming existing deficits in the number of teachers and administrators and buildings and classrooms, and in meeting the growing demands which the future will bring.

The National Citizens Council for Better Schools, which has its headquarters in New York City, recently published a booklet, *How do Labor and Schools Work Together?* In a section headed "Self-Analysis," there were ten questions suggested for labor and ten suggested for schools. Since this is a meeting of school people, I think it would be appropriate to tell you the ten questions directed to you.

Here they are:

1. How much do I know about union history in my own community?
2. Approximately how many children in this school district come from wage-earning families?
3. How many community leaders come from the labor unions?

4. Have labor groups been invited, or overlooked, when committees ostensibly representing the whole community have been formed to help schools?
5. Have we ever considered having a joint economic education council in this district?
6. Have we invited representatives of labor to speak to school audiences when representatives from business and industry are appearing?
7. Has the role of labor in American history been adequately covered in social studies classes, or does labor have justification in saying this has been skimmed over lightly?
8. Is there a tendency on the part of the school staff and parents to look upon children in vocational or technical training classes as second-class students? If so, have steps been taken to counteract this attitude?
9. Have schools in this district ever made a survey of community resources available from labor groups?
10. If local labor leaders have lacked continuing

interest in school problems, has it been caused by poor public relations on the part of the schools?

Now, after having brought the self-analysis questions to your attention, it would be only fitting and proper for me to underscore the fact that your organization has certainly been thoughtful and considerate in seeking the opinions of labor at this meeting. I am, of course, only being consistent with what I have said to you before when I say it was right and well-advised for you to get opinions from different segments of our society, including labor. But I am also greatly pleased to have had the opportunity of speaking in labor's behalf. I wish you the greatest success in all your educational endeavors.

High School and College Instructors Can't Teach Reading? *Nonsense!*

MANY COMPETENT HIGH SCHOOL and college instructors recognize that they need to be concerned with helping students at all levels of competence to improve their reading skills needed in the various subject areas. But the perennial question that plagues a conscientious instructor is "How can I cover the course content assigned by the curriculum makers and at the same time teach reading?"

This article is concerned with suggesting ways that may be helpful to the instructor in high school or college who is trying to resolve the conflict between covering assigned subject matter and helping students become better readers.

The realization that learning to read is a life-long process is not new. In recent years, however, there has been a growing uneasy awareness on the part of many workers in secondary and collegiate education that they need to be doing something about helping students to improve the reading skills that are needed in high school, college, and later adult life. But it has not been clear just what should be done.

More and more high school and college instructors are realizing that something more constructive needs to be done than simply blaming the elementary schools for not doing a better job of teaching children to read. Elementary teachers and administrators, as a whole, are the first to realize that improvements in the teaching of reading need to be made, and they are doing an excellent job of making the needed improvements.

But regardless of the caliber of the work

being done by the elementary schools in teaching children to read, it is now well known that the art of reading is so complex that no one, not even the brightest child in the best of all possible elementary schools, can learn all he needs to know about reading by the end of six or eight years of schooling.

WHY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS CAN'T DO THE WHOLE JOB

There are at least two reasons why the elementary schools cannot be expected to do the entire job of teaching students to read, and why high schools and colleges need to take steps to insure continued growth in the reading ability of students.

1) Reading involves interpreting printed symbols and making discriminative reactions to the ideas expressed by them. The processes of interpreting and making discriminative reactions can be taught and learned only in terms of the ideas expressed by the symbols, i.e., the content of the reading material.

The elementary school cannot prepare children to read skillfully in all the different subject areas they will meet in high school, college, and adult life. Many students are able to select from their "bag" of reading skills those that are required for reading any new bit of material, without guidance from the teacher. However, even these students would be able to select appropriate reading procedures more effectively if some guidance were provided. This is certainly not a novel idea, since our whole concept of formal education is based upon the assumption that guided learning is more efficient than unguided learning.

Most students will be more successful in reading in any subject field if they are

* Mr. Davis is professor of psychology and director of the Reading Clinic at the University of Houston, on leave as visiting professor of psychology at Ohio State University, Columbus.—EDITOR.

given appropriate guidance at the appropriate time. Guidance that was given five to ten years earlier may be too remote to be adequate.

2) Individual differences in reading achievement, which have been well documented and discussed in educational and psychological literature,¹ are present at every educational level. The more effective the instruction provided at earlier levels, the greater the range of individual differences will be at the high school and college levels.

Much has been said and done about working with students who are poor readers. Many reading clinics and special reading classes have been established to provide extra help for these students. Much less thought and energy have been given to helping students who are already average or above in reading skill. In many high school and college classrooms it is the students of better-than-average competence who are "short-changed." Too frequently the assumption is made that these students can take care of themselves.

Let's consider some ways in which subject-matter instructors in high school or college can help students become better readers without taking too much of the time needed for covering course content.

HOW SUBJECT-MATTER INSTRUCTORS CAN HELP STUDENTS BECOME BETTER READERS

There are two basic approaches to helping high school and college students to improve their reading skill. One of these involves setting up a special reading improvement program, with a reading specialist in charge. The other involves the provision of guidance in reading improvement by instructors in the various subject-matter classes.

Both of these approaches should be used, since each can accomplish things that the other cannot. The special reading improvement program in a high school or college should be set up to work with competent readers who can benefit from

additional guided practice as well as with students who have reading difficulties. The personnel and facilities of this special program should also be available to subject-matter instructors who want to find ways to improve the reading skills of their students in their own classes.

In addition to referring some students for specialized help in reading, or even in the event that no specialized help is available, the subject-matter instructor can do certain things in his own classroom that will be helpful to even the best readers. An instructor does not need to be an expert in the teaching of reading in order to do these six things.

1. *Give attention to students' readiness for reading the assigned material*

There appear to be three primary factors that determine readiness for reading, or for learning via any other avenue, at any educational level, or in any particular subject field: a) mental maturity; b) background knowledge and skill; and c) motivation for learning.²

An instructor can get a reasonably good indication of the mental maturity of his students in several ways: by looking at their recent intelligence or academic aptitude test scores; by looking at their records of past achievements; and by observing the daily behavior of students in the classroom and outside.

In learning about the status of the background knowledge and skill of his students, an instructor can do several things.

- 1) He can look at the scores made by students on standardized reading tests;
- 2) He can devise two or three short reading tests of his own to supplement or replace standardized reading tests. This can be done by choosing selections from the textbook(s) to be studied, and composing several comprehension questions on the selections. These short tests can then be used to get an indication of stu-

¹ Irving H. Anderson and Walter F. Dearborn, *The Psychology of Teaching Reading*. New York: Ronald Press, 1952, pp. 41-48.

² For an excellent discussion of readiness for learning (including reading), see Lee J. Cronbach, *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt-Brace, 1954, chaps. 4-8.

dents' rate of reading and comprehension accuracy on material of the kind that they will meet in his course. In making such tests the instructor will need to be careful not to select paragraphs containing technical terms that are not defined within those paragraphs, and that the student could not be expected to know otherwise. Since the material for these two or three tests can be selected from the content of his course, the instructor can get objective indications of his students' reading ability at the same time that he is covering subject matter. By using two or three short tests on different days, he can be better assured of the reliability and validity of his impressions.

- 3) An instructor can devise a test on the vocabulary and concepts that students will encounter in a new assignment to determine whether the students have the background knowledge required for understanding the lesson. He can then teach any concepts and terms that may be needed, as indicated by the pre-test.

If students have the mental maturity, the reading skill (and any other required skills), and the understanding of vocabulary and basic concepts required to profitably study the new material, they will be successful readers, *if they are interested*. It is well known that a strong desire to learn will compensate for many background deficiencies. In making any assignment, an instructor needs to seriously consider how he can help students to acquire the interest and drive that will help them to go ahead in spite of obstacles. The problem of motivation is, of course, an age-old one that cannot be easily solved. However, in doing the three things suggested just above, an instructor will be doing a great deal to increase the meaningfulness of reading in his subject for his students. Meaningfulness of activity is one of the major factors in motivation for that activity.

The ideas that follow also bear, at least indirectly, upon motivation.

2. *Give attention to the readability of assigned textbooks and supplementary reading material*

Closely related to the problem of determining and increasing students' readiness for learning through reading is the question of the readability of the assigned reading matter. As early as 1923 it was recognized that much textbook material is written at an unnecessarily difficult level.¹ Since that time several "readability formulae"^{2,3,4} have been devised for estimating the difficulty of reading material. Some of these formulae can be easily applied by an instructor to reading material in his courses to give him a more objective indication of the difficulty of the material than he might otherwise have.

The desirability of providing easier reading material for some students as preparation for successful handling of the normally assigned reading, and of providing more challenging material for others, is obvious. The argument is sometimes heard that providing reading material on different levels of difficulty, particularly easier material for the less competent students, constitutes "spoon feeding" and is not compatible with the goal of maintaining high standards in education. The necessity for maintaining high standards cannot be denied. But it would seem that a good way to help the less competent students to read better and to achieve according to the high standards that we desire, is to let them read easier material on the subject as preparation for successfully handling the more difficult material that is normally assigned. Among other advantages, this would help to decrease the frustration experienced by poor readers when required to read material written

¹ B. A. Lively and S. L. Pressey, "A Method of Measuring 'Vocabulary Burden' of Textbooks," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 1923, IX, 389-398.

² E. Dale, and J. S. Chall, "A Formula for Predicting Readability," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1948, XXVII, 11-12; 37-54.

³ R. F. Flesch, "Marks of Readable Style," Teachers College, Columbia University, *Contributions to Education*, No. 897, 1943.

⁴ Irving Lorge, "Predicting Readability," in Hunicutt and Iverson, *Research in the Three R's*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, 184-194.

in a difficult style, without adequate preparation for it.

Similarly, it seems likely that levels of achievement of the most competent students can be raised by letting them read more difficult material. This attention to readability may enable an instructor to decrease the frustration that hampers a bright student when he has to read material that is so easy as to provide no challenge for him. Even if supplementary reading material of different difficulty levels is not available, an instructor can better help students get ready to do the assigned reading if he knows something about the readability of the material.

3. Show students how to preview reading material

One of the major premises of many present-day theories of learning is that meaningful material is easier to learn and remember than is non-meaningful material. This principle is highly pertinent to learning through reading. One important way in which a reader can increase the meaningfulness of any material for himself is by previewing the material to be read before reading it in detail. This process will enable him to have some prior understanding of the content and of the major trends in the discussion. He will be less apt to let the appearance of the trees dull his perception of the forest.

Many high school and college students, even among the brightest, have not learned to preview an article, chapter, or book before reading it in detail.¹ In helping students learn how to preview a selection, an instructor should first make clear why such a procedure is helpful. He can help students to realize that it is easier and more enjoyable to learn something when one can see how it is related to the whole. He can then show students how the preface, table of contents, section headings, summaries, footnotes, charts and graphs, topic sentences, index, appendices, glossary, etc., can be used to

advantage in studying for this particular course.

The Survey Q3R Method of reading, involving previewing as its first step, is an excellent example of a systematic approach to reading that is based upon experimental findings in psychological studies of learning, perception, retention, motivation, etc.^{2,3,4} The few minutes required to explain and demonstrate this method of reading, using the course textbook or comparable material, will be well repaid by the increased effectiveness of students at all levels of reading skills.

4. Help students realize the importance of varying style of reading to fit material and purpose

Many students, particularly the poorer ones, have the misconception that all reading should be done at the same rate and with the same thoroughness, regardless of material and purpose. An extreme example of this misconception may be seen in students who read everything with slow, careful deliberation. At the other extreme are the students who try to read everything rapidly. These students, and others between these extremes, do not realize that the rate and care with which a skillful reader reads a given bit of material de-

² F. P. Robinson, *Effective Study*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946, Project II.

³ S. L. Pressey, F. P. Robinson, and J. E. Horrocks, *Psychology in Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959, Chap. 17.

⁴ F. P. Robinson, who originally designed the Survey Q3R Method, gives the following explanation of it (Pressey, Robinson and Horrocks, *op. cit.*, pp. 571-572):

"Survey. The student makes a rapid survey of the headings in the assignment, to find out what major ideas are present and their sequence.

"Question. The student turns the first heading into a question in order to have a seeking attitude and to know what he is reading for.

"Read. The student reads the section under the heading, seeking the answer to his question.

"Recite. Having read the section clear through, the student writes down brief cue phrases from memory. (No copying is done, and complete notes are not wanted.)

"Steps 2, 3, and 4 are repeated for each succeeding section that has a heading.

"Review. Immediately after reading the whole lesson in this way, the student tries to recall the points that have been developed in it. This is a second recitation. He glances at his notes only as needed to remind him of points not immediately recalled."

¹ D. G. Danskin and C. W. Burnett, "Study Techniques of Those Superior Students," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1952, XXXI, 181-186.

depends upon the nature of the material and his purpose in reading it.

An instructor can emphasize two points with students in regard to varying rate and thoroughness of reading according to their purposes and the nature of the material.

- 1) The skillful reader asks himself, before starting to read, "What do I already know about this topic? What do I want to get from this reading—all of the major ideas and their supporting details, or just the main ideas without the details, or am I looking just for some specific items of information?"
- 2) The skillful reader uses a systematic approach to reading, such as the Survey Q3R Method, varying its application according to the degree of comprehension and retention he desires.

Students who realize the importance of varying their style of reading according to their purposes and the nature of the material can achieve greater mastery of subject matter in a course. They recognize that while the course textbook requires very thorough reading, supplementary readings for additional background can frequently be read less thoroughly, hence more rapidly and in greater quantity. This, of course, presupposes that students know how to find supplementary material on the subject.

5. *Help students to locate supplementary reading material on the subject*

Wide reading in a subject helps a student to become better informed on the subject, and also helps him to read additional materials in that field more effectively. An instructor can help students to become more skillful readers as well as better informed students by helping them learn to locate reading material in his subject field. He should acquaint them with sources of bibliographies, with indices and abstracts, and with other appropriate guides to reference material.

6. *Help students improve their knowledge of the vocabulary of the subject*

Since acquaintance with the terminology of any subject is basic to reading skillfully in that subject, a major responsibility of an instructor is to help students to acquire the desire and the necessary skills for continued vocabulary improvement in the subject.

An instructor can emphasize that extensive reading constitutes one of the best bases for vocabulary improvement. In addition, he can remind students of certain skills that are useful in deciphering the meanings of strange words. While most students probably learned these skills in the elementary school, many will profit from being reminded of the applications of these skills to the vocabulary of the particular subject being studied. Among the most important of these skills are:¹

- a) using context clues;
- b) using phonetic clues;
- c) using structural clues—e.g., prefixes, suffixes, roots
- d) using the dictionary.

Guidance from the instructor will help students to see how these vocabulary skills may be used in improving knowledge of vocabulary in any particular subject.

SUMMARY

Since learning to read is a lifetime process that cannot be completely mastered by the end of the elementary school, subject-matter instructors in high schools and colleges have a responsibility for helping students continue their growth in reading skill. This article has suggested ways in which a subject-matter instructor can help his students improve their reading skill at the same time that he is covering subject matter. An instructor does not need to be an expert in the teaching of reading in order to help students read better at the same time that he is covering course content.

¹ G. Spache and P. Berg, *The Art of Efficient Reading*. New York: Macmillan, 1955, Chaps. IX, X, and XI.

Summaries of Group Discussions at the Sixty-Fourth Annual Meeting

APRIL 21, 22, 23, 1959

AT THE SIXTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Research and Service held eighteen "buzz sessions" and group conferences on as many different topics—eleven by the former and seven by the latter. Space does not permit printing the recorders' reports in full; hence, what follows is, in each case, a sharp reduction to the main points of each discussion. Incidentally, these sessions have been so largely attended year after year, that the Commissions in question have made them an important feature of their respective programs.

THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS TUESDAY, APRIL 21, 1959

NO. 1. TOPIC: "What are some successful methods of grouping? How can we identify and classify students to insure maximum learning opportunities?"

Chairman: R. H. Braun, Principal, Urbana High School, Urbana, Illinois

Recorder: Hugh Bish, Principal, Lawton High School, Lawton, Oklahoma

Panel Members: A. L. Hagen, Superintendent of Schools, Dickinson, North Dakota; W. E. Kettlecamp, Assistant Principal, University City Senior High School, University City, Missouri; Curtis C. Love, Principal, Pine Bluff High School, Pine Bluff, Arkansas; Theodore D. Rice, Professor of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Past failures in grouping, it was asserted, were partly due to faulty identification. Some factors of identification now in use are: performance at a B+ or A level; I.Q. from 120 to 135; high scores on standard tests; and reading scores two years above grade average.

Whether students should be informed about their respective group placement is a moot question. Some believe the less said, the better. In some systems, additional grade points are given in advanced

sections. A wide range of opinion was revealed concerning group size. Remedial work calls for more individual attention, whereas advanced classes learn better in large groups.

Training teachers in effective methods of group-teaching needs additional attention. Colleges should make this a matter of concern. In-service preparation within schools employing pupil grouping, it was stated, is possibly the best approach.

Small schools, restricted as they are, cannot group successfully. In such a situation, a teacher may group within a relatively large class. Community reaction to grouping is seemingly favorable.

The consensus was that, despite the fact that each school has its own problems regarding grouping, such an arrangement is worthwhile.

NO. 2. TOPIC: "What is the best grading and reporting system when a school practices grouping? Are differentiated diplomas needed in this situation?"

Chairman: J. Frank Malone, Principal, Northwest Classen High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Recorder: Roy W. Greer, Principal, Joplin Senior High School, Joplin, Missouri

Panel Members: Louis J. Adolphsen, Director of Secondary Education, Davenport, Iowa; William J. Holt, Principal, Rensselaer High School, Rensselaer, Indiana; Norman F. Thorpe, Director of Teacher Training, University of Nebraska Lincoln, Nebraska

This session discussed at length the bases of grouping, areas best suited to grouping, and other items of general significance. As for working it was shown that the schools represented ranged from "letting the chips fall where they may" to differential grading. Apparently no one advocated differentiated diplomas.

NO. 3. TOPIC: "Should we take a new look at extra-curricular activities and other class interruptions?"

Chairman: Harold W. Lavender, Superintendent, Raton Public Schools, Raton, New Mexico

Recorder: Harley Lautenschlager, Principal, Laboratory School, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

Panel Members: Alva R. Ditttrick, Principal, John Adams High School, Cleveland, Ohio; Roy E. Holladay, Principal, East Grand Rapids High School, East Grand Rapids, Michigan; Raymond W. Knight, Principal, Will Rogers High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; Howard Latta, Principal, Webster Groves High School, Webster Groves, Missouri; Robert M. Murphy, High School Principal, Williamsburg Community School District, Williamsburg, Iowa; Leon B. Olson, Williston High School, Williston, North Dakota

Although references were frequently made to the need for outside support for the control of excessive interruptions, such as by the NCA and state departments of education, it seemed to be generally agreed that school administrators must assume leadership in working with their own communities to set reasonable standards of control which the public will understand and accept. It is not wise to "let the public have whatever it wants." Therefore, administrators must help the public to make essential decisions based on an understanding of the problems involved in reaching desired goals. Apparently the need is great for a sound evaluation rather than a blind curtailment of the extra-curricular program.

No. 4. TOPIC: "How can we make most effective use of professional personnel?"

Chairman: Paul W. Lange, Superintendent, Lutheran Association for Higher Education, St. Louis, Missouri

Recorder: Hugh Willis, Principal, Crossett High School, Crossett, Arkansas

Panel Members: L. W. Huber, Principal, Central High School, Columbus, Ohio; W. J. Kaczrowski, Principal, Mahtomedi High School, Mahtomedi, Minnesota; W. V. Langen, High School Principal, Independent School District No. 696, Ely, Minnesota

These questions: "Can the secondary school be all things to all people?"; "Are better time schedules for classes, longer periods, and fewer subjects indicated?"; "How can teacher aides and clerical assistants assist professional personnel?" and "How can better pupil guidance enhance our use of professional personnel?" engaged the attention of this group.

One school reported a three-level arrangement which provides a broad program to care for all youth: occupational, for I.Q.'s of 70 to 90, vocational, for those who can qualify for a diploma and meet the state requirements for college entrance; and general and college preparatory. The last category provides regular academic subjects.

The "unit" requirements for graduation should be relaxed. Lengthen the period and reduce the daily number to five. Marks should still be used but not as the basis of promotion. On the back of each diploma the capabilities of its holder should be recorded.

Aides can relieve teachers of non-teaching work and thereby release professionally trained and relatively expensive personnel for their fundamental work.

More effective guidance is basically needed. One cannot afford to use highly skilled teaching talent to guide students who can best be served by other professional persons. This means that specialized personnel should be assigned to appropriate tasks.

No. 5. TOPIC: "Should we guide the academically talented student into mathematics, science, and foreign language courses? If so, how?"

Chairman: O. B. Farren, Principal, Saint Mary's High School, Saint Marys, West Virginia

Recorder: Harlan Beasley, Principal, Clovis High School, Clovis, New Mexico

Panel Members: James E. Hays, Principal, University High School, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; Sister Virginia Marie, C.S.J., Principal, Rosati-Kain High School, St. Louis, Missouri; William A. Vorlicky, Principal, Bedford City High School, Bedford City, Ohio

Opposition was voiced to special courses and guidance procedures for mathematics, sciences, and languages; as much is needed in social sciences and English. Not every student should take mathematics. There are other national needs equal in importance to the need for scientists and highly trained technicians. Those who can qualify for mathematics and science should be guided into those fields at the junior high school level. Good screening must be done with existing tools: intelligence tests, educational develop-

ment tests, school marks, teacher appraisal, and counseling procedures.

The gifted student should be introduced to languages early—a practice not wholly new in the United States, and certainly of long standing in Europe. A four-year sequence in high school should be provided, supplemented by laboratory procedures and aids.

THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1959

GENERAL TOPIC: "Changing Trends in Secondary Education."

NO. 1. TOPIC: "What services of colleges and/or state departments should be set up to secure improved articulation between high schools and institutions of higher learning?"

Chairman: John J. Goldgruber, Principal, University of Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wisconsin

Recorder: Roy Hinderman, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado

Panel Members: Floy A. Miller, Assistant Commissioner, State Department of Education, Lincoln, Nebraska; Alva R. Dittrick, Principal, John Adams High School, Cleveland, Ohio

The overflow attendance at this meeting attested the high degree of interest in the topic.

The meeting opened with a report of the proposed state-wide "K-16 Program" in Nebraska. This proposal is the outgrowth of a comparable "K-12 Program" jointly sponsored by the schools of Lincoln and the University of Nebraska. As the symbols indicate, the range is from kindergarten through high school. The aim is to close gaps and eliminate overlappings by having a continuous curriculum" which will make it possible for pupils to learn with maximum ease and greatest effectiveness." The fields included are English, mathematics, social studies, and science.

A similar purpose is the point of reference in the proposed "K-16 Program," which will extend the range of operations through college. The Nebraska State Committee has stimulated interest and given leadership in both projects.

Extended discussion of the K-16 idea led to the conclusion that it brilliantly illustrates what related agencies—state departments, NCA committees, and

higher institutions—can do toward effectuating closer articulation at all school levels.

One speaker suggested specific services "that could be shared, extended, and improved by cooperating groups." He suggested that in each state the NCA committee provide leadership in getting specific jobs done:

1. College confirmation at a reasonably early date of acceptance or rejection of those seeking admission.
2. Regular college reports to high schools about the standing of their former students.
3. Careful state-wide coordination of college conferences and visits to high schools.

In the third presentation, the K-16 idea emerged once more. The Colorado State Committee has promoted a project in that state, in which college and high school teachers work together on the content and methods of courses on both levels. Here, too, English, mathematics, science, and social studies are the focal fields.

This project has been running four years, resulting in a five-part program of action:

1. Identification of pupils with college potential
2. Adaptation of the instructional program to meet the needs of students.
3. Cooperative counseling and guidance by both high school and college teachers.
4. Cooperative testing and evaluation by both high school and college teachers.
5. Employment of cooperative articulation procedures by both high school and college teachers.

NO. 2. TOPIC: "How can the small high school meet the demand for special training for gifted pupils?"

Chairman: Ellis C. Rainey, Principal, Lebanon High School, Lebanon, Missouri

Recorder: Clyde Rothgeb, Principal, Hays High School, Hays, Kansas

Panel Members: Harry L. Fitzhugh, Superintendent of Schools, Franklin, Illinois; Miller J.

Stewart, Principal, Steamboat Springs Public Schools, Steamboat Springs, Colorado; Tracy H. Stockman, Principal, Frankenmuth, Michigan

The small high school was identified as one having fewer than two hundred students; the talented, as possibly 15 to 20 percent; and the gifted, as 5 percent of this enrollment. By means of a good testing program, the gifted should be identified at as early age as possible. Counseling and guidance programs "are a must" in identifying gifted individuals. Recognition of superior achievement and the creation of a correct climate are big factors, too. Teachers must be qualified and interested because they are the most important element. Summer schools, correspondence courses, the Advanced Placement Program, "Expectancy of Quality," greater availability of laboratories—Saturdays, before and after school; and not only enrichment and depth of subject matter, but also the church, scouting, and other resources were suggested. The non-curricular items in the foregoing array were considered essential if the gifted student "is to have the type of personality . . . needed to meet the demands of the future."

No. 3. TOPIC: "How can secondary school administrators reduce the burden of non-professional activities of teachers?"

Chairman: Irvin G. Wolf, Principal, Denby High School, Detroit, Michigan

Recorder: Lawrence Lemon, Principal, Scottsbluff High School, Scottsbluff, Nebraska

Panel Members: Burton W. Gorman, Head, Department of Secondary Education, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio; James H. Maxwell, Superintendent, Grafton City Schools, Grafton, North Dakota

"Possibly teachers have too many bosses, too few helpers," said the opening speaker. "In some administrative set-ups, certain supervisors and coordinators might be replaced with clerks without loss of educational efficiency," he continued. He further indicated that teacher time and energy could be conserved by more clearly defining the responsibility and authority of persons to whom the teacher is responsible; by reducing the number of

general teachers' and committee meetings; by limiting the monitorial, police, and custodial functions assigned to teachers; and reducing the paper work. Parents, students, clerks, and still other non-teaching personnel could be used, instead of teachers, to perform some of the school tasks usually assigned to teachers.

Another participant, a teacher, commented on the study of working conditions now being made by the Department of Classroom Teachers of the N.E.A., with the hope that it would be the springboard for an intelligent attack upon the problem under discussion. "Many proposed solutions are mere devices," said she, "and should be recognized as such."

No. 4. TOPIC: "How can secondary schools develop a serious attitude toward study among the average and less than average students who treat high school casually?"

Chairman: Cecil S. Webb, Principal, Jefferson High School, Lafayette, Indiana

Recorder: George F. Chapman, Assistant Principal, Ritenour Senior High School, St. Louis, Missouri

Panel Members: Hal Robbins, Principal, Conway High School, Conway, Arkansas; H. L. Mack, Principal, Laramie High School, Laramie, Wyoming

Some obstacles to effective remediation were mentioned, such as differences in home influences; and in student interests, abilities, and general attitudes. The discussion centered around a well balanced curriculum, and extra-curriculum program; well-designed guidance and counseling services; in-service programs of teacher study; and "dedicated teachers."

All participants agree, however, that there is "no set formula" for this problem, and that there are so many "ifs" as to make each case an individual challenge.

No. 5. TOPIC: "How can interested social groups be mobilized to assist the schools to achieve their objectives? Whose job is it?"

NOTE: No report of this conference was submitted.

No. 6. TOPIC: "What should the high school do to offset the damaging effects of inadequate homes and disorganized neighborhoods on talented pupils?"

Chairman: Fred G. Messenger, Principal, Muscatine High School, Muscatine, Iowa

Recorder: Winton L. Moeller, Principal, Woodward High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

Panel Members: Richard G. Krebs, Principal, South High School, Omaha, Nebraska; Oliver F. Wergin, Principal, North Division High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; William F. Wright, Principal, Albuquerque High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico

Parents often do not recognize or understand their children's capabilities; hence, many frustrations grow out of such a situation, said the first speaker. Basic feelings of insecurity thus derived color the child's behavior and school work.

The school must beware of making hasty or superficial judgments of the abilities of students from less favorable socio-economic origins, lest many talented pupils with such backgrounds be denied proper school opportunities. Whenever talented pupils with few of this world's resources are found, the school must do everything possible to safeguard their educational interests.

Troublesome behavior sometimes flows from a clash of home and school-staff cultures. When a school is sensitive to this clash and makes a serious effort to understand the students concerned, it often can channel them toward a far more satisfying life than that which they have experienced.

Certain suggestions were made for dealing with the culturally handicapped: develop a climate conducive to scholarship; give real recognition for all achievements; alert the faculty to the need for sympathy and appreciation, leading to respect for handicapped pupils; understand and accept language limitations of children of foreign-born parents and of underprivileged native-born parents as well—as much should be said for manners and dress; provide enriched social experiences through a varied extra-curricular program; use community resources, the church, social agencies, youth organizations, and the like; completely orient and inform all talented students about educational opportunities in the community, being aware of the fact that all such opportunities are not in the school

itself; see that the talented, living under poor conditions, receive their full share of strong teachers; and determine whether such children need more and better guidance and counseling than those from more favored homes.

THE COMMISSION ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 22, 1959

NO. 1. TOPIC: "What can we do to solve the problems and give wise leadership to the dynamic changes and expansions occurring in testing and guidance programs?"

Chairman: Frank S. Endicott, Director of Placement, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

Recorder: Byron L. Westfall, Professor of Education, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

Panel Members: Samuel A. Stouffer, Director, Laboratory of Social Relations, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Jack Kough, Vice President, Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois; Howard Hoogesteger, Dean of Students, Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois; Robert Metcalf, Director of Guidance, Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois

There are two important developments: the extensive growth of national and regional testing programs, and the increasing number of good programs developed by individual schools for their own purposes. More educators should take the leadership in planning programs and influencing trends in testing.

Test results in themselves are not sufficient to serve as the sole basis for educational and vocational planning; previous marks, teachers' and counselors' observations, and the students' stated interests should be utilized.

Test results can be useful in college admissions, but here, too, other information must be considered: the validity of grade-point average, the significance of factors other than the grade-point average, the applicability of multi-factor tests to various college divisions, the pertinence of cut-off scores, good aptitude and poor achievement and the converse, peer attitudes, educational status of parents, and the like.

The consensus was that a considerable number of tests will be used for guidance and selection; as more tests are made available, they will be selectively used; the most important aspect of a testing program of course will be the intelligent use of test results; educators will take a larger part in the development of tests and testing programs; and testing *programs* will increasingly displace the use of single tests.

No. 2. TOPIC: "What has the NCA project on the Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Secondary School Students contributed to the thinking of the participants?"

Chairman: J. Ned Bryan, Director, Superior and Talented Student Project;

Recorder: Lawrence W. Hanson, Principal, Grand Forks Central High School, Grand Forks, North Dakota

Consultants: John E. Cline, Principal, Decorah Senior High School, Decorah, Iowa; Max Kaslo, Assistant Principal, Glendale High School, Glendale, Arizona; Darwin B. Key, Principal, Franklin High School, Franklin, Ohio; Mrs. Armond Litterior, Parent, Chicago, Illinois; Dorothy L. Litterior, Secretary, Kelly Honor Society, junior in Kelly High School, Chicago, Illinois; Alexander M. Moore, Principal, Crispus Attucks High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Eugenia Rives, Counselor, T. A. Futrell High School, Marianna, Arkansas; Bruce Shertzer, Associate Director, NCA STS Project, Chicago, Illinois

There is evidence that both ideas and practices have been affected. For instance, information about superior elementary pupils is passed along to the high school; both students and parents have greater respect for academic achievement; multi-track programs have been set up and counselors appointed for STS students; many students have been made aware of their superior abilities; teachers have been stimulated; standards tightened in all departments; parents have been made aware of their responsibilities regarding the development of their children's abilities; students are challenged to achieve at ability level rather than for grades only; and the "average" group has assumed a greater degree of leadership than before.

No. 3. TOPIC: "What curricular changes are needed in schools and colleges?"

NOTE: No report was submitted for publication.

No. 4. TOPIC: "What are the respective roles and responsibilities of lay citizens and professional educators and how can they more effectively be coordinated?"

Chairman: Walter Cooper, Assistant Superintendent, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois

Recorder: Herbert W. Schooling, Superintendent of Schools, Webster Groves, Missouri

Consultants: Ernest Britton, Superintendent of Schools, Midland, Michigan; Harlan B. Collins, Secretary, Link-Belt Company, Chicago, Illinois; Floyd Farmer, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Curriculums, Wichita Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas; John Bash, Principal, Niles Township High School, West Skokie, Illinois; Howard Latta, Principal, Senior High School, Webster Groves, Missouri; I. G. Wolf, Principal, Denby High School, Detroit, Michigan

Lay participation always changes with "moods." Today we are committed to universal education. The moods of various groups, therefore, have caused great concern. It has been expedient to prepare information for use by all media of public communication.

There are two types of advisory committees or lay groups: permanent or continuing, with changing personnel; and temporary, for specific tasks. The public must not feel that membership is "stacked." Each group should be "custom-tailored" to fit the city or community. Group projects may be long-range or immediate.

It is basically important that Boards of Education set up criteria governing the selection of members for and functions of lay committees. Such a group should have its powers very carefully explained. For instance, an advisory committee must be "advisory" only, because occasionally its "advice" cannot literally be accepted. With care, such a situation should not precipitate an issue between the Board and the committee.

Area-wise, a committee may function within a city, a district, a county, or a state. Kansas has a committee in every county.

Lay participation is essential because educational matters now involve the in-

terests of all the people. Doors must be opened to them.

No. 5. TOPIC: "What are the human relations concepts and practices which we must establish if we are to have the most effective educational system for a democratic society?"

Chairman: F. C. Rosecrance, Dean, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Recorder: J. Earle Grinnell, Dean, College of Education, University of Southern Illinois, Carbon-dale, Illinois

Discussants: Gertrude Noar, National Director of Education, Anti-Defamation League; Catherine Van Vleck, Dean of Girls, Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; Robert S. Fox, Director, University Laboratory Schools, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; George Brock, Principal, West High School, Aurora, Illinois; Giles Theilmann, Director of Curriculum and Instruction, Topeka Public Schools, Topeka, Kansas

The idea was advanced that serious attention to human relations has been pushed into the background—that we may win a battle yet lose the war if we do not improve such relations. The *major* issues that confront society today are based in faulty human relations: crime, delinquency, marriage failures, emotionally caused mental illnesses, and intergroup conflicts, including war. Prejudice and discrimination precipitate intergroup troubles. Here, the struggle over desegregation is paramount, revealing the coalescence of forces inimical to democracy and the public schools, not only in the South, but elsewhere. Social studies teachers should revise curriculums, find weaknesses, and inculcate attitudes favorable to democracy, as remedial measures. Each type of behavior, research indicates, tends to reproduce its kind in the classroom, and teachers lack needed knowledge and skill to improve social groups, although they are the catalysts to that end. Some teachers have accepted that role but have asserted that their college training provided least help in the social-studies areas.

Some cooperating teacher training schools are experimenting with plans to correct weaknesses in the human-relations aspects of their curriculums.

No. 6. TOPIC: "What are the pressing problems in the articulation of our elementary, secondary, and higher education levels and what procedures are being used to solve them?"

Chairman: Mahlon A. Povenmire, Principal, Lakewood High School, Lakewood, Ohio

Recorder: Paul T. Dixon, Director of Student Teaching, Kansas State College, Pittsburg, Kansas

Discussants: Charles Joss, Principal Fairfield High School, Fairfield, Iowa; Russell Rupp, Principal, Shaker Heights High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio; Nicholas Schreiber, Principal, Ann Arbor, High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan

The discussion was largely devoted to high school-college relations. At Fairfield, Iowa, however, the most effective means for orienting former junior high school pupils to their senior high school experiences is the 18-week, one-hour-a-day program for freshmen. Counselors conduct it. One of them deals with orientation for the first two weeks; another, with occupations for ten weeks; and still another, with speech for the remaining six weeks.

As for the articulation of high school and college programs, much has been said, but little done. Why? Because there is no agreement among colleges as to what, for instance, "college" English or mathematics really is. "Until the colleges get their heads together, we in the high schools will continue to do what we have been doing." These two institutions need better lines of communication. A program of inter-visitation might help. There should be teacher interchanges, too. Common workshops for high school and college teachers to discuss their subject-matter problems would help, but the colleges will have to arrange them.

The idea was advanced that when a college accepts a student, it has the responsibility for the success of that student.

As for test data, the trend is for the schools to furnish the colleges with more of this type of information. But how much gets into the hands of college teachers who should use it is not known.

Study habits, self-direction, self-discipline, budgeted time, and still other

items were mentioned as important to the students college welfare.

No. 7. TOPIC: "What are the unique roles and contributions of the junior and community colleges and how can they best fit into our expanding educational system?"

Chairman: William N. Atkinson, President, Jackson Junior College, Jackson, Michigan

Recorder: Jacob Van Ek, Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

Panel Members: Lester M. Emans, Director of Teacher Education, Wisconsin State College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin; Peter Masiko, Jr., Chicago City Junior College, Chicago, Illinois; Elmer W. Rowley, Dean, Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Illinois; Tilford T. Swearingen, President, William Woods College, Fulton, Missouri; Raymond J. Young, Associate Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

In response to a widely circulated inquiry, junior colleges had indicated that they offer both general education and terminal programs, the latter resulting in "marketable skills." Private junior colleges emphasize somewhat more than do the public, general programs. They also indicated that type of college control, making their programs meaningful in terms of community needs, and keeping their unique functions and objectives be-

fore their respective communities were their chief problems.

In developing a state-wide system of junior or community colleges, a comprehensive plan should be formulated and applied. The occupational, economic, and sociological composition of the state should be ascertained, but the community should plan its own institution. A state-wide agency should lead and advise.

The need for more colleges is growing. College population is rising and the social, political, and defense requirements of the nation demand that this population be educated.

The junior or community colleges should decide whether their primary function is secondary or collegiate in character. But over and above this need, the previously mentioned state plan is well-nigh mandatory lest a congeries of institutions spring up as haphazardly organized educational units with overlapping functions and constituencies. Confusing as the situation is, some "guide lines" for development are beginning to emerge. The colleges in question should not merely be high school extensions; or merely the first two years of a standard college; and should be locally controlled.

Index to Volume XXXIV

- Accredited Higher Institutions Outside NCA Territory, 29-40.
- Accredited Institutions of Higher Education, List of, 16-28.
- Action of Reviewing Committees on Annual Reports, 51-53.
- "American Education for American Culture," Huston Smith, 155-160.
- Association Notes and Editorial Comment, 149-154; 191-207; 257-264.
- "As the Soviet Twig Is Bent," E. W. Ziebarth, 208-213.
- Burns, Norman, "The Task of Accrediting in Higher Education," 220-226.
- Composition of Reviewing Committees, 43-50.
- Conant, James B., "Development of Talent in Europe and the United States," 265-272.
- Constitution of the Association, 140-146.
- Davis, Stanley E., "High School and College Teachers Can't Teach Reading? *Nonsense!*" 295-299.
- "Development of Talent in Europe and the United States," James B. Conant, 265-272.
- Eckert, Ruth E., "When School Teachers Join College Faculties," 161-166.
- "Educational Systems of Major Foreign Countries," Carl G. F. Franzen, 273-283.
- Erickson, Ralph J., "Legal Basis of Minnesota Teachers' Contracts," 174-179.
- Evaluation Program of the North Central Association Foreign Relations Project—A Committee Report, 227-253.
- Franzen, Carl G. F., "Educational Systems of Major Foreign Countries," 273-283.
- Ferrer, Sister Mary, "Number Theory and Its Uses," 214-219.
- "High School and College Teachers Can't Teach Reading? *Nonsense!*" Stanley E. Davis, 295-299.
- "Labor's Viewpoint on Education," P. L. Siemiller, 288-294.
- "Legal Basis of Minnesota Teachers' Contracts," Ralph J. Erickson, 174-179.
- Logsdon, J. D., "A Philosophical and Structural Basis for an Educational System Appropriate for the American People and Their Culture," 284-287.
- Member Schools by States, List of, 53-119.
- Meyer, Karl W., "Still Another Look at Teacher Education," 167-173.
- Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 29-31.
- New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 31-32.
- Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, 37-38.
- "Number Theory and Its Uses," Sister Mary Ferrer, 214-219.
- Official Roster of the Association, 1-10.
- "Philosophical and Structural Basis for an Educational System Appropriate for the American People and Their Culture," J. D. Logsdon, 284-287.
- Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for Approval of Secondary Schools, 120-131.
- Proceedings of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, 15-28.
- Proceedings of the Commission on Secondary Schools, 41-131.
- Report of the Commission (on Secondary Schools), 41-42.
- Report of the Commission (on Colleges and Universities), 15-16.
- Report of the Secretary (of the Association), 11-14.
- Siemiller, P. L., "Labor's Viewpoint on Education," 288-294.
- Smith, Huston, "American Education for American Culture," 155-160.
- Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 33-37.
- Statistical Information About Secondary Schools, 1958-59, 132-139.
- "Still Another Look at Teacher Education," Karl W. Meyer, 167-173.
- Summaries of Group Discussions at the Sixty-Fourth Annual Meeting, 300-307.
- "Task of Accrediting in Higher Education, The," Norman Burns, 220-226.
- Treasurer's Report for the Fiscal Year, 1958-59, 180-188.
- Western College Association, 38-40.
- "When School Teachers Join College Faculties," Ruth E. Eckert, 161-166.
- Ziebarth, E. W., "As the Soviet Twig Is Bent," 208-213.

Publications of the North Central Association

Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service.
 - A. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in high school social studies classes. Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.
 1. *Atomic Energy*, by WILL R. BURNETT
 2. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by E. E. LORY and C. L. RHYNE
 3. *Housing in the United States*, by A. W. TROELSTRUP
 4. *Maps and Facts for World Understanding*
 5. *Why Taxes?* by EDWARD A. KRUG and ROBERT S. HARNACK
 6. *The Federal Government and You*
 7. *Youth and Jobs*, by DOUGLAS S. WARD
 8. *The Family and You*, by HENRY A. BOWMAN
 - B. Foreign Relations Series sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units, available through Foreign Relations Project, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois.
 1. Our American Foreign Policy
 2. Our Changing German Problems
 3. Chinese Dilemma
 4. American Policy and the Soviet Challenge
 - C. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects.
 1. Study of Teacher Certification
 2. Better Colleges, Better Teachers—Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, New York.
 3. Incentives used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers (single copies 25¢, quantities of 10 or more 15¢ each).
 4. The Workshop as an In-Service Education Procedure (single copies 25¢; quantities of 10 or more 15¢ each).
 5. Improvement of Reading in Colleges and Secondary Schools.
 6. Better Education for Nonacademic Pupils (single copies 25¢; quantities of ten or more, 15¢ each).
 7. Some Guiding Principles for Student Teaching Programs.
 8. Appraisal of the Current Status of Television as a Medium of Instruction—National Educational Television and Radio Center, 10 Columbus Circle, 1590 Coliseum Building, New York 19, New York.
 - D. *Syllabus—Functional Health Training*, by LYNDIA M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago.
 - E. *Improving Teacher Education Through Inter-College Cooperation*—Wm C. Brown, Co., 215 West Ninth, Dubuque, Iowa (\$3.50)
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools, distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools. Available from Executive Secretary, Commission on Secondary Schools, North Central Association, 1904 East Washington St., Charleston 1, West Virginia.
 - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
 - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
 - C. *Know Your North Central Association*
- IV. Publications available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
 - A. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities.
 - B. National list of institutions of higher education accredited by the six regional accrediting agencies, published by the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies of the United States.

- V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies.
- A. *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*. 160 pages, 8½×11. Paper, \$1.25; *Teachers Handbook*, 8½×11. Paper. 32 pages, \$0.60. Order from the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 25, D. C.
 - B. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, 1954 Revision: Formal Service Courses in Schools. Published in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
 - C. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C.
 1. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), cloth \$3.50; paper. \$2.50. Complete set of separate sections (one copy each, Sections A through Y) unbound \$2.50; single copy of any section, \$0.25. Separate sections (sold in banded sets of 5 copies of each section priced to effect a saving for schools requiring multiple copies of specific sections): A *Manual*, 90¢; B *Pupil Population and School Community*, 70¢; C *Educational Needs of Youth*, 60¢; D *Program of Studies*, 50¢; D-1 *Core Program*, 50¢; D-2 *Agriculture*, 50¢; D-3 *Art*, 50¢; D-4 *Business Education*, 50¢; D-5 *English*, 60¢; D-6 *Foreign Languages*, 50¢; D-7 *Health and Safety*, 50¢; D-8 *Home Economics*, 50¢; D-9 *Industrial Arts*, 50¢; D-10 *Industrial Vocational Education*, 60¢; D-11 *Mathematics*, 50¢; D-12 *Music*, 50¢; D-13 *Physical Education for Boys*, 50¢; D-14 *Physical Education for Girls*, 50¢; D-15 *Science*, 50¢; D-16 *Social Studies*, 50¢; E *Pupil Activity Program*, 70¢; F *Library Services*, 60¢; G *Guidance Services*, 70¢; H *School Plant*, 70¢; I *School Staff and Administration*, 90¢; J *Data for Individual Staff Members*, 35¢; X *Statistical Summary of Evaluation*, 70¢; Y *Graphic Summary of Evaluation*, 75¢.
- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage. Available from Editorial Office of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, 4019 University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Officers of the Association

Executive Committee

THE PRESIDENT,
THE VICE-PRESIDENT,
AND TREASURER,
Ex Officio

President: WILLIAM R. ROSS, President, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado
Vice President: STEPHEN A. ROMINE, Dean, College of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado
Acting Secretary: Robert J. Keller, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota
Treasurer: R. NELSON SNIDER, Principal, South Side High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana

T. H. BROAD, Director of Curriculum, Oklahoma City Public Schools, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
NORMAN BURNS, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois
ELMER ELLIS, President, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri (1955-59)
ALVA J. GIBSON, State Department of Education, Charleston 5, West Virginia
LAWRENCE W. HANSON, Principal, Grand Forks High School, Grand Forks, North Dakota (1958-62)
HARLAN C. KOCH, Associate Dean of the Graduate School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
MARVIN C. KNUDSON, President, Pueblo Junior College, Pueblo, Colorado (1956-60)
SIMEON E. LELAND, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois
RUSSELL F. LEWIS, First Assistant Superintendent, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin
J. FRED MURPHY, Principal, Broad Ripple High School, Indianapolis 20, Indiana
E. J. O'DONNELL, S.J., President, Marquette University, Milwaukee 3, Wisconsin (1957-61)
CLYDE VROMAN, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Chairmen of the Commissions

Secondary Schools: RUSSELL F. LEWIS, First Assistant Superintendent, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin
Colleges and Universities: SIMEON E. LELAND, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois
Research and Service: J. FRED MURPHY, Principal, Broad Ripple High School, Indianapolis 20, Indiana

Vice Chairmen of the Commissions

Colleges and Universities: MILO BAIL, President, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska
Research and Service: HERBERT W. SCHOOLING, Superintendent of Schools, Webster Groves, Missouri

Secretaries of the Commissions

Secondary Schools: A. J. GIBSON, State Department of Education, Charleston 5, West Virginia
Colleges and Universities: NORMAN BURNS, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
Research and Service: CLYDE VROMAN, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

GEORGE BANTA COMPANY, INC., MENASHA, WISCONSIN, U.S.A.